240

0-315-12551-9

National Library of Canada | Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Canadian Theses Division | Division des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

60462

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

• Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur

Sheila, Thelma Mawson

Date of Birth — Date de naissance

April 24, 1952

Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance

Canada

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe

11131 - 123 Street
Edmonton, Alberta

or

Box 187
Lac La Biche, Alberta

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta
1975 - 1978

University — Université

University of Alberta

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

Master of Education

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade

1982

Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse

Dr. J. Parsons

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date

Oct. 15/82

Signature

S. Mawson

NL-91 (4/77)

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

I.S.B.N.

THESES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (r. 82/08)

Canada

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN ALBERTA, 1975-1978

by

© SHEILA MAWSON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1982

Alberta

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
00874 NOV 23 82
THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

EDUCATION

Devonian Building, West Tower
11160 Jasper Avenue
Edmonton, Alberta, Canada
T5K 0L2

1982 11 16

Mrs. Sheila Mawson
11131 - 123 Street
Edmonton, Alberta
T5M 0E6

Dear Sheila:

Further to your request for information about copyright of curriculum guides published by Alberta Education, this is to advise that the 1971 Alberta Social Studies Curricula ("Experiences in Decision Making" and "Responding to Change"), the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, Interim Edition, and the 1981 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum are all public documents and may be reproduced by whomsoever wishes.

Therefore, you are authorized to reproduce, in whole or in part, sections of these documents for inclusion in your M.Ed. thesis.

Sincerely,

Frank Crowther

F. A. Crowther
Associate Director of Curriculum
Social Studies

FAC/blt

MICRO

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

RELEASE FORM

NAME OF AUTHOR Sheila Mawson

TITLE OF THESIS Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta, 1975-1978

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED Master of Education

YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED 1982

Permission is hereby granted to THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA LIBRARY to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

(Signed) S. Mawson

PERMANENT ADDRESS:

11131 - 123 Street
Edmonton, Alberta

DATED October 15 1982

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta, 1975-1978 submitted by Sheila Mawson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

J.B. Parsons
Supervisor

C. Chamberlin

Date October 6, 1982

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to conduct a historical survey and documentary analysis of those influences and processes that resulted in the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum. The study examined those factors, individuals and groups who were involved in the process of curriculum development. As well the study examined the process of curriculum development that occurred and the outcomes of that curriculum development process.

Chapter 1 deals with the problem, including the purpose of the study, delimitations, limitations, related problems, justification for the study, and definition of terms. As well, it includes an explanation of the methodology of the study.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the literature.

Chapter 3 provides a comparison of the 1971 social studies curriculum, Responding to Change, and the 1978 social studies curriculum, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition.

Chapter 4 examines the process of curriculum development and examines those factors, groups, and individuals that influenced the direction of social studies curriculum development.

Chapter 5 includes a summary of Chapter 4, conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am much indebted to the people who gave of their time and insights to assist me in my research. The willingness of these people to discuss the development of the social studies curriculum as they experienced it, and to permit use of this information is very much appreciated.

I would like to express appreciation to Frank Crowther for his assistance and cooperation throughout the course of this study.

I would like to thank Dr. T. Aoki for serving on my committee. I feel privileged to have had the opportunity to experience his vision of education.

My appreciation is extended to Dr. C. Chamberlin for serving on my committee and for providing me with much assistance throughout the course of this research project.

Special thanks are due to my advisor, Dr. J. Parsons, for his invaluable assistance and advice, his encouragement and patience, and his kindness.

I would also like to thank Betty Turner, secretary at the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education, for her cheerful and willing help.

A very special thanks is due to my husband, Don Wiley, for his affection and support that sustained me during the writing of this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
1	INTRODUCTION, OVERVIEW, AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY . . .	1
	Introduction and Overview of the Study	1
	Introduction	1
	Object of the Study	2
	Importance of the Study	3
	Delimitation of the Study	6
	Limitations of the Study	7
	Design of the Study	8
	Definition of Terms	8
	Exploration of Related Problems	9
	Methodology for Obtaining Data	12
	Organization of the Thesis	16
2	A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	17
	Influences on Curriculum Development	18
	Government as an Influence	18
	The Educational Field as an Influence	25
	Social Factors as an Influence	29
	Other Influences	34
	Curriculum Development as a Political Activity . .	37
	Summary	38
3	A COMPARISON OF THE 1971 and 1978 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA	40
	Social Studies Defined	40
	Nature of Inquiry	41

Chapter		Page
	Learning Objectives	49
	Knowledge Objectives	50
	Skill Objectives	56
	Value Objectives	60
	Content and Objectives	62
	Canadian Content	66
	Support Materials and Resources	66
	Role of the Teacher	69
	Role of the Student	71
	Summary	72
4	THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS	77
	Antecedents to Change	77
	The 1967 Conference	77
	The Downey Report	83
	Structural and Personnel Changes in the Department of Education	98
	Summary	105
	Increased Canadian Studies in Alberta Social Studies	107
	The Societal Context	107
	What Culture? What Heritage?: The Report of the National History Project	109
	The Canadian Studies Feasibility Project	111
	The Canadian Studies Conference	112
	The Canadian Studies Foundation	112
	Project Canada West	113
	The Hurtig Survey	114

Chapter | Page

The Alberta Scene 116

The Influence of the Canadian Studies Foundation and Project Canada West 116

Influence of Hurtig 117

Influence of The Downey Report 119

Appointment of Dr. Ralph Sabey 120

Canadian Content Resource Units 120

Other Developments 123

More Pressure 124

Work of the SSCCC 125

The Political Influence 126

Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Learning Resources Project 131

The Kanata Kits 136

Summary 141

Increased Structure and Prescription in Alberta Social Studies 143

The Societal Context 143

Back to the Basics 144

The Media 146

Parents 148

Students 149

Alberta School Boards 150

Universities 151

Superintendents 151

The Public 152

Chapter | Page

Teachers 154

The Provincial Government 164

The Curriculum Policies Board 172

The Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies and the Membership of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee 183

Influence of the Curriculum Policies Board . . . 187

Influence of Teachers 189

Influence of School Boards 194

Influence of the "Back to the Basics" Movement 195

Influence of the Media 195

Influence of the Provincial Government 196

Influence of The Downey Report 198

Direction Taken by the SSCCC 198

The Consideration of the Social Studies Revisions by the Curriculum Policies Board, May, 1977 200

The Reaction of the SSCCC to the Deliberations of the Curriculum Policies Board 207

Review by the Curriculum Policies Board of the Policy Directions Established for Social Studies 208

Subsequent Developments 209

Social Studies Proposal by the SSCCC to the Curriculum Policies Board, February 2, 3, 1978 210

Summary 215

The Curriculum Development Process After the February, 1978 Approval of the Social Studies Program by the Curriculum Policies Board 217

Chapter | Page

Ledgerwood Resigns: Crowther Appointed Associate Director 217

Ministerial Decision Deferred 217

Revisions Proceed 218

Approval of the Social Studies Program 224

5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY 226

Summary 226

Conclusions and Implications 231

Government as an Influence 231

Major Interest Groups as an Influence 235

The Curriculum Development Process 236

Curriculum Development as a Political Process . . 239

Suggestions for Further Study 244

BIBLIOGRAPHY 246

APPENDIX A. THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE 258

APPENDIX B. THE INTERVIEW FORMAT 261

APPENDIX C. THE INTERACTION PROCESS 265

APPENDIX D. THE SPIRAL OF CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT 267

APPENDIX E. ORGANIZING CONCEPTS OF THE 1978 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM 269

APPENDIX F. INCORPORATION OF THE "ORGANIZING CONCEPTS" INTO A UNIT OUTLINE 272

APPENDIX G. INCORPORATION OF INQUIRY SKILLS AND PARTICIPATION SKILLS INTO A UNIT OUTLINE 274

APPENDIX H. SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS—1971 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM 276

APPENDIX I. ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT 278

Page

APPENDIX J. CANADIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—
1978 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM 283

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION, OVERVIEW, AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction and Overview of the Study

Introduction

The last decade has witnessed considerable activity in the area of social studies curriculum development in the province of Alberta. In the early 1970's, a new social studies curriculum was introduced in Alberta schools, titled Responding to Change at the secondary level and Experiences in Decision Making at the elementary level. The 1971 curriculum was designed in marked contrast to the previous social studies curriculum which was highly centralized and followed a traditional, structured approach with an emphasis on the study of the disciplines and on factual content (Korteweg, 1972, pp. 88, 113, 129, 130; Downey, 1975, p. 32).

In 1975, L. W. Downey and his associates presented an assessment of the 1971 social studies curriculum to the Alberta Department of Education. The report of the assessment was titled The Social Studies in Alberta—1975—A Report of an Assessment, and was commonly referred to as The Downey Report. The report concluded that there had been "considerable slippage" in the actual implementation of the program in Alberta classrooms, but that the 1971 curriculum had the potential to "generate exciting and appropriate programs (Alberta Education, 1978, p. 4).

The result of The Downey Report was a revision of the 1971 curriculum. In 1978, an interim edition of the Alberta social studies curriculum was introduced in Alberta schools. As the 1978 curriculum guide stated, the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, Interim Edition

> . . . represents the culmination of sixteen preliminary curriculum drafts, the work of more than one hundred Alberta educators on curriculum development and validation committees, and the input of several thousand teachers and interested citizens who attended reaction meetings across the province in 1977 and early 1978. (Ibid., p. 4)

The 1978 curriculum, although retaining some aspects of the 1971 curriculum, did make some significant changes.

Object of the Study

The object of this study was to conduct a historical survey and documentary analysis of those influences and processes that resulted in the development of the 1978 social studies curriculum for use in Alberta schools as recommended to and approved by the Minister of Education of Alberta.

The object of the study was achieved through research directed at an examination of the following related problems:

1. What individuals, groups, and factors can be identified as having an influence on the curriculum development process?

2. What decisions and factors were crucial and had an important bearing on the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum?

3. How did these decisions and factors affect the outcome of the process of curriculum development in Alberta social studies?

Importance of the Study

Major changes occurred in Alberta social studies curriculum in the early 1970's. The Downey Report, released in 1975, stated that these changes often occurred without adequate preparation for educators to understand the processes and underlying rationale behind the changes (Downey, 1975, pp. 11, 19). According to The Downey Report, this lack of understanding on the part of Alberta educators often led to a general disorientation among these educators, as they lacked the knowledge and understanding of the processes that had contributed to the changes (Ibid., pp. 11-19). One reason for conducting this study was to increase teachers' and other educators' understanding of the curriculum development process by providing a description and analysis of the structures, influences, and processes used in curriculum development. This study was an attempt to contribute to the understanding of how curriculum development agencies, through day to day involvement in planning and implementation, translate ideas, visions, and theories into programs and practices. Reid and Walker in their book, Case Studies in Curriculum Change, cite Joseph Schwab's work to affirm that ". . . the recovery and report of [curriculum] deliberations and of . . . judgements constitute a labor of great importance" (Schwab, 1975, p. viii).

In discussions concerning curriculum development, there is often a scarcity of information regarding the influence that individuals engaged in curriculum development brought to bear on this process. Ralph Tyler, in his work, states that:

> It is conventional wisdom that significant changes in the curriculum have been developed as responses to demands and opportunities arising outside of the school, embedded in the greater changes in society. We know little of persons who are able to translate external pressures into constructive responses. (Tyler, 1978, p. 11)

As a result of this general lack of information, a second reason for undertaking this study was to identify the people who were involved in curriculum development, the extent of their involvement, and the influences they brought to bear on the development of the Alberta social studies program. This study identified those individuals who affected the curriculum development process in Alberta social studies, and the curriculum orientations or philosophy of these people.

W. Kenneth Richmond, writing in The School Curriculum, states that educators have not participated actively enough in curriculum development (Richmond, 1971, p. 12). A third reason for conducting this study was that this level of involvement might be enhanced if educators had an understanding of the factors, groups, and individuals influencing curriculum development in Alberta. As Reid and Walker (1975) point out, studies on curriculum development and implementation would help provide students and practitioners of this curriculum development and implementation with ". . . a fund of information and ideas which could serve to encourage them to think productively about the perennial issues in curriculum studies" (p. x). Oliver (1977) supports the view put forward by Reid and Walker, stating that "the more the educator knows about these matters, the better should be his decision making" (p. 146).

A fourth reason for carrying out this study was that there was little knowledge that existed as to how curricula had actually

been developed. Laurens Korteweg (1972, p. 5), in his Doctor of Philosophy Thesis written at the University of Alberta, detailed the lack of studies done in the area of understanding the factors, individuals, and groups that have influenced the curriculum development process. K. E. Shaw (1975), in his discussion of curriculum change, notes that "we still know . . . very little about how large educational enterprises really work, still less about how crucial curriculum decisions are arrived at" (p. 55). And yet despite the lack of knowledge in this area, the understanding of how curriculum develops remains an important question. Eisner (1971) states:

> How curricula are developed and implemented is an unstudied problem in American education. With the exception of four studies, no attempt has been made, as far as I know, to study systematically the way in which curricula are actually made by curriculum development groups. . . . Yet the study of how that task is pursued is . . . one of the primary boulders from which the building blocks of the field of curriculum can be cut. . . . The study of processes central to curriculum as a field of study, has been neglected. (p. 5)

Writers in the field of curriculum development have emphasized how important these studies are to education. David Hamilton (1977), in discussing curriculum development and its evaluation, contends that historical research into these processes is important because it allows us to ". . . make sense of the present through an appraisal of the past" (p. 319). He also states that "a historical perspective is a valid and useful heuristic. . . ." (p. 319) for establishing the processes that activate curriculum development and evaluation. Decker Walker (1975), in his work on curriculum development, states that a body of knowledge detailing past curriculum development ". . . would enable curriculum makers to profit from the insights and mistakes of

their predecessors" (p. 92). William Reid (1975) also notes the importance of these studies as they provide ". . . a secure foundation for lasting insights into the nature of change and innovation" (p. 246). As Joseph Schwab (1975) states:

> . . . the recovery and report of . . . deliberations and of . . . judgements constitute a labor of great importance. Only a large and growing body of them will provide us with ground for testing our views of what constitutes better and worse in these critically important arts. When such reports concern education, which is to say, when they concern the decisions and actions by which we determine preparations for the living of human lives, such a work is of special importance. (p. viii)

A fifth reason for undertaking this study was to mesh the theory of how curriculum develops with the practice of an actual curriculum development project. Walker (1971b) notes the importance of this. He states that such studies ". . . provide the theorist with a way of gaining access to some of the phenomena he theorizes about with an intimacy not possible otherwise" (p. 210).

This study proposes to be a contribution to this important area of understanding the process of curriculum development.

Delimitation of the Study

The study primarily focused on the curriculum developments in social studies from the time that The Downey Report was released in 1975 to the time of implementation of the new Alberta social studies curriculum in Alberta schools in 1978. Antecedents to this time period of social studies curriculum development were included when they brought some influence to bear on the curriculum development process during the period 1975-1978.

The area of curriculum development investigated was delimited

to the field of social studies at the secondary level although many of the curriculum policy deliberations and decisions that were made applied to all grade levels (one to twelve).

The study was restricted to an examination of the development phase of the social studies curriculum. In did not include implementation or evaluation phases of the social studies program.

The study was delimited to examining the influences of those factors, individuals, and groups that could be ascertained as having made an impact on the social studies program that emerged.

Limitations of the Study

One of the major sources of data was interviews conducted with individuals who had been involved in social studies curriculum development in Alberta during the period under study. Since the writer was limited by the amount of travel that could be done, the extent of data gathering was limited to those individuals who were accessible to the writer. In two cases, correspondence was substituted for an interview.

Because written records were not kept in all instances, the writer was not able to check some verbal information against documentary evidence, thus having to depend on the memories of the individuals interviewed. However, it was possible to check the perceptions of individuals with others who had participated in the events.

Despite the fact that the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education had endeavoured to preserve all the documents associated with the development of the 1978 social studies program, some may have been lost or misplaced.

Although this study was an examination of fairly recent events, the quality of material in the interviews may be limited by the ability of the participants to recall events of five to seven years ago.

The study is also limited by the interpretations and classification of the contents of the documents and the interviews made by the writer.

Design of the Study

Definition of Terms

Curriculum. Educators vary in their interpretation of curriculum. Some interpret it narrowly as a specific course while others view it widely as an experience that the student may have under the guidance of a school (Oliver, 1977, p. 7). In the context of this study, Alberta Social Studies Curriculum will refer to those guidelines outlined in the Alberta social studies curriculum guides as published by the Department of Education (Responding to Change, 1971; 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978). The term "social studies program" may be equated with the term "social studies curriculum."

Curriculum Decisions. In this study, the following definition of "curriculum decisions" will apply. Curriculum decisions are:

> . . . conscious policy choices that affect what is learned. These decisions pertain to the nature of the programs, pre-instructional plans, materials, or activities that delineate organized educational programs of the school or classroom. They are made with the intent of controlling purposes, subject matter, method, and order or instruction. (McNeil, 1977, p. 258)

Curriculum Policy. The following definition of "curriculum policy" will apply. Curriculum policy is ". . . a body of principles to guide action . . . [either] explicit or implicit. . . ." (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 479).

Curriculum Deliberations. In this study the term "curriculum deliberations" will mean the following: "the process by which beliefs and information are used to make these [curriculum] decisions is deliberation" (Walker, 1971a, p. 54).

Curriculum Development. The study of curriculum development is a study of how curriculum came about. It is a study of the "process of arriving at [curriculum] policy. . . ." (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 479). Other terms such as "curriculum building," "curriculum making," and "curriculum policy making" may be equated with the term "curriculum development."

Exploration of Related Problems

The object of this study, as previously stated, was:

> . . . to conduct a historical survey and documentary analysis of those influences and processes that resulted in the development of the 1978 social studies curriculum for use in Alberta schools as recommended to and approved by the Minister of Education of Alberta.

This problem was then divided into three related problems:

1. What individuals, groups, and factors can be identified as having an influence on the curriculum development process?

2. What decisions and factors were crucial and had an important bearing on the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum?

3. How did these decisions and factors affect the outcome of the process of curriculum development in Alberta social studies?

This section will outline some of the questions that will be used in order to investigate these problems. Some of the guidelines outlined by Laurens Korteweg (1972) in his thesis, A Decade of Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta, will be used. This section will also outline the methodology to be used for obtaining data.

Problem No. 1. What individuals, groups, and factors can be identified as having an influence on the curriculum development process?

Sample Questions

1. What groups were instrumental in the initiation and development of the new social studies?
2. Which person(s) in each group, so identified, had a considerable impact?
3. What other persons, not identified within a group context, contributed in the making of crucial curriculum decisions?
4. What formal positions did the persons cited above occupy?
5. What other resources, aside from position or office occupied, did they possess?
6. What resources did the group identified possess in relation to other groups so identified?
7. What other factors influenced the direction of curriculum development?
8. What issues arose relative to curriculum that were discussed at great length?
9. What positions were taken by what persons relative to certain issues?
10. What beliefs or value systems were held in common by what people?
11. What curriculum development structures existed to facilitate the process of curriculum policy-making?

12. What other channels, aside from the formally structured ones, were perceived to exist?

13. What linkages of a formal or informal nature existed among participants and influential individuals in curriculum development?

Problem No. 2. What decisions and factors were crucial and had an important bearing on the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum?

Sample Questions

1. What were the antecedents to the new social studies curriculum development?

2. What were the main reasons for initiating action?

3. What factors led to this initiative?

4. What individual or individuals were responsible for calling meetings to discuss changes?

5. Who determined what persons should participate?

6. How did proposals originate or issues arise?

7. How were decisions made?

8. What data were presented to either refute or support certain positions?

9. Which curricular practices were cited as precedents for decision-making?

10. What coalitions or polarizations were formed relative to issues that arose?

11. How permanent were such coalitions? Did they transcend the boundaries of interest groups?

12. What arguments were advanced by whom before a decision was made?

13. How was the issue resolved?

14. What factors in the wider environment appeared to have had an influence on the decisions that were reached?

15. How did the Department of Education seek input? Who gave input?

Problem No. 3. How did these decisions and factors affect the outcome of the process of curriculum development in Alberta social studies?

Sample Questions

1. What legal and structural changes in the processes of curriculum development were instituted?
2. What were the major changes in the development of social studies programs?
3. What were the contributing factors that led to changes in curricular policy-making?
4. What were the contributing factors that led to the changes in policy-making relative to social studies?
5. In what respects does curriculum development in the early 1970's differ from curriculum development in the late 1970's and early 1980's?
6. What trend, if any, is apparent in the development of curriculum in general and social studies in particular?
7. What are the implications for the future of curriculum development in the province of Alberta, in the light of the events of the recent past?

Methodology for Obtaining Data

Sources and Nature of Data

Two principal methods of data collection were used: (1) analysis of documents and (2) interviews. Where these did not provide the required data, other techniques such as correspondence and telephone conversations were used as required.

Documentary Data

One of the major sources of data was the Department of Education files. This included minutes of curriculum boards, curriculum committees, and other ad hoc committees. Other sources were reports, official correspondence, papers, conference proceedings,

and so on. Permission to examine these files was granted by the Department of Education.

A second source was documentary data made available by the ATA Social Studies Specialist Council. This included briefs to the government, policy statements, and position papers.

Another source of data was representations or position papers presented to the Curriculum Policies Board and other branches of the Department of Education by concerned individuals and groups.

The formal evaluation of the 1971 social studies curriculum, The Downey Report, was also a source of data.

Lauren Korteweg's thesis, A Decade of Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta, served as a source of data which provided background information on the process of curriculum development of the 1971 social studies program.

Data on curriculum guidelines were obtained from published curriculum guides from the Department of Education.

Data were also obtained from a number of publications including the Edmonton Journal, St. John's Edmonton Report, The ATA Magazine, Alberta School Trustee, and One World.

Interview Data

These data provided an important source of information. The data obtained from interviews were used to elaborate on the documentary data and to fill in areas where documentary data were incomplete. It also provided a means of cross-validation of information.

Interviews were conducted from April, 1981 to July, 1982, and involved individuals who had been involved in the curriculum

development process in Alberta social studies in some way.

From an initial examination of some of the documents, as well as an initial interview with Mr. Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, an initial list of people to be interviewed was compiled. As more documents were examined, and interviews held, additional names were added to the list of people to be interviewed. A total of 22 people were interviewed. Two persons replied to the questions by means of personal correspondence. (See Appendix A.)

Most individuals interviewed were first contacted by letter. This initial contact was followed up with a phone call which was used to secure an interview with the individuals. In a few cases, the initial contact was made by telephone.

The writer drew up an initial set of questions. Prior to each interview (except for two exceptions), a set of questions (see Appendix B) was provided to the person before the actual interview took place. The set of questions was standard for all people interviewed with the understanding that people could focus in on those particular questions for which they had the background, experience, and/or understanding. As well, individuals were encouraged to think about other important aspects of social studies curriculum development not covered by the set of questions. All interviews were conducted by the writer.

Within the course of the interview, flexibility was allowed for the writer and person being interviewed to pursue other areas not covered by the list of initial questions. Each of the interviews

lasted approximately an hour and a half.

All interviews except four were taped. During the four interviews where the tape recorder was not used, selected responses were written down in a verbatim fashion. Typewritten transcripts were made of all the interviews.

Transcripts were read and re-read, and responses that were judged to be important for understanding the process of social studies curriculum development were noted so that they could be cross-validated with other data.

Prior to publication of this study, each of the individuals quoted in the study was contacted in writing. A copy of the quotations used in the study was submitted to the individuals interviewed for verification. A small number of the individuals took the opportunity to modify their quotations. The modifications that were made were not substantive ones, but included changes that the individuals felt would clarify or give further elaboration to the quotations. Because the quotations were ones taken from oral interviews rather than written responses, they have a conversational tone to them.

The information obtained from these two sources of data was then used in an attempt to answer the questions previously posed in this study. The data were used to describe the influence of various factors, individuals, and groups on the curriculum development process. The data were also used to describe the actors involved, the social and institutional context of the curriculum development process, the goals of the participants, the issues addressed, the positions taken by various groups and individuals on various issues, the resources

available to the participants, and the outcomes and consequences arising from the influences brought to bear on social studies curriculum development in Alberta.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters. The first chapter deals with the problem, including the purpose of the study, delimitations, limitations, related problems, justification for the study, and definition of terms. As well, it includes an explanation of the methodology of the study.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the literature to provide a background for the study.

Chapter 3 provides a comparison of the 1971 social studies curriculum, Responding to Change, and the 1978 social studies curriculum, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition.

Chapter 4 identifies the factors, groups, and individuals that sought to influence the development of the social studies curriculum in Alberta and the degree of influence they exerted on that process. The chapter also examines the processes involved in the development of the social studies curriculum, as well as the outcomes and consequences of those processes.

The thesis concludes with Chapter 5 which deals with a summary of Chapter 4, conclusions, implications, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Curriculum development is a very complex and dynamic process. A review of the literature on curriculum development reveals the great multitude of factors that can act individually or in conjunction with each other to influence the direction and development of a curriculum.

Educators, writing in the area of curriculum development, express the complexity of this field. James B. MacDonald (1971a) writes:

> Curriculum development . . . is a very complex and dynamic process. It is subject to historical tradition and tendencies, to diverse and sometimes contradicting cultural and social pressures, to the relation of institutional and social living in the schools, and to the personalities and characteristics of those involved in the development and implementation of curricula. (p. 97)

Robert S. Zais (1976) discusses ". . . the overwhelming complexity of the curricular enterprise" and states that ". . . the number of interdependent variables that influence curriculum development is disconcertingly immense" (p. xi).

Gerald R. Firth and Richard D. Kimpston (1973) also identify the complexity of the curriculum development process and point to the importance of uncovering the factors that can influence curriculum development. They state:

> The curriculum is a network of contributory factors. It is important to understand these factors and their directions to realize the trends and issues they create in the program, and then to be ready to utilize the supporting forces in such a

> way to implement those trends that seem to be the most desirable for students. . . . To understand the current status of program development, to determine its progress in qualitative as well as quantitative terms, and to plan further improvements, educators and citizens alike must examine the factors that have influenced the curriculum offered by the elementary and secondary schools throughout the nation. (p. 7)

While curriculum writers acknowledge that in a particular curriculum development process some factors may carry more "clout" than others, they are of the view that none ". . . function in isolation . . ." (Firth and Kimpston, 1973, p. 170) but interact with each other in a dynamic fashion.

Influences on Curriculum Development

This chapter will identify those factors that can act to influence the curriculum development process recognizing the dynamic nature of this influence in which various factors may act in concert with each other in a common view of what curriculum policy and policy making should be, or in conflict with each other because of a disconsonant view of how curriculum policy should be made and what its aims should be.

Government as an Influence

Government bodies and their agencies, whether federal, provincial (state), or local, have played and continue to play a role in curriculum development. This role is not a static one. As various trends in curriculum policy making become predominant, the degree of influence which any of these bodies may hold will fluctuate. For example: in a period of decentralization of curriculum development, the influence of federal and provincial (state) governments will

diminish. Whereas, in a situation where centralization is the major feature of the educational situation, the influence of federal and/or provincial (state) governments will be enhanced.

In Canada, where the federal government has no curriculum development function and where the provinces are diametrically opposed to any extension of federal power into this area (Herbert and Hersom, 1974, p. 28), the levels of government exerting an influence on curriculum development would be provincial and local (i.e., local school boards).

In the United States, the federal government has played a much more interventionist role and has influenced many diverse aspects of education including curriculum development (Wiles and Bondi, 1979, p. 16). As well, the state and local (i.e., school boards) governments continue to play a role in curriculum development (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 480).

Government can affect curriculum development in a number of ways. The next section will discuss how government can make its influence felt.

Government Legislation

One of the key factors influencing curriculum development is legislation passed by provincial (state) legislatures stating curriculum policy to be followed under their jurisdictions. Wiles and Bondi (1979) state that "what is taught may be formally stated by governments or legislative acts in countries where such formal acts exist" (p. 283).

Albert Oliver (1977) also discusses the role of government in legislating curriculum policy. He writes:

> Education in the United States [Canada] is a function of each state [province]. Each state government has made regulations through state legislation. Sometimes they are broad in nature; sometimes they are rather specific. (p. 147)

Herbert and Hersom (1974) write about how important an influence provincial legislation has on curriculum development in the provinces. They state that "the official provincial policies are likely to remain the most powerful determinants of trends in school curricula in Canada" (p. 37).

These government policies can vary from one of centralized authority in which government legislation limits the flexibility and initiative of the professional at the school level, to one of decentralized decision making which allows for maximum lay and professional initiative (Wiles and Bondi, 1979, p. 25). McNeil (1977), Firth and Kimpston (1973), Doll (1978a), Kirst and Walker (1971), and Orlosky and Smith (1978a) have identified government legislation as being an important factor which carries influence in curriculum policy making.

An example of government legislation affecting education in Alberta was the Goals of Basic Education for Alberta legislated by the government of Alberta in May, 1978. The purpose of these goals was to provide ". . . statements which indicate what is to be achieved or worked toward" (Alberta Education, Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, p. 13). The functions of the goals were to:

a. identify the distinctive role of the school and its contribution to the total education of youth.

b. provide purpose and direction to curriculum planning, implementation, and evaluation.

c. enable parents, teachers, and the community at large to develop a common understanding of what the schools are trying to achieve. (Ibid., p. 13)

The Educational Bureaucracy—Government Agencies

Provinces have their own Minister of Education who has complete legal power and responsibility for education. Each Minister heads a Department of Education which is comprised of Ministerial staff which, among their many duties, formulates curricula and regulations. Curriculum committees may be set up within the Department to advise the Minister on curriculum matters (Herbert and Hersom, 1974, p. 27).

The influence of the respective Departments of Education on curriculum development varies from province to province (state to state) (Firth and Kimpston, 1973, p. 119). However, as Kirst and Walker (1971) point out, "where there is state adoption [of curriculum], the Department of Education seems to exercise considerable leverage" (p. 493).

An important component of the leverage exercised by individuals in their respective Departments of Education often appears to be related to their personal influence in terms of the position they hold, their expertise and their personal efficacy. Kirst and Walker (1971) note that:

> The oldest and simplest solution to the problem of making curriculum choices is to endow an individual or small group with the authority to make these decisions by exercising professional and presumably expert judgment. (p. 485)
>
> An individual or group that has leverage is one that can make a big difference in the outcome of conflicts over curriculum policy. (p. 488)

The influence of the Departments of Education may be felt in a wide range of areas in curriculum development. They may develop or initiate the development of curriculum materials (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 493; Firth and Kimpston, 1973, p. 119; Doll, 1978a, p. 338). Authorization for school use of previously developed textbooks and materials (i.e., from commercial sources) may be given (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 493). The Departments of Education may prepare curriculum guides and decide on topics that will be covered in the school (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 493).

During the period of this study, the Alberta Department of Education was instrumental in the development of social studies curriculum. Two curriculum committees were in operation at this time: the Curriculum Policies Board and the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee (SSCCC). The SSCCC was responsible for developing the social studies curriculum under the guidelines established by the Curriculum Policies Board. During this period, the various sections of the Department of Education developed curricular materials, authorized the use of certain learning resources for schools, prepared curriculum guides, decided on topics to be covered in the school and so on. (See pages 172-200 of this study.)

Financial Support

The question of the degree to which funding influences curriculum development, according to some writers in this field, is not entirely clear. Ronald C. Doll (1978a) writes that ". . . too little is known about the effects of funding on curriculum change or improvement" (p. 218).

Despite this reservation, he does recognize that funding has a role to play in curriculum development. He states that "as schools' financial support comes increasingly from state and federal governments, control will inevitably follow the dollar" (Doll, 1978a, p. 89).

Although not universally accepted as a factor which influences curriculum policy, funding of curriculum projects is seen by many educational writers as having an important impact on their development (Firth and Kimpston, 1973, pp. 9, 123-128; Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 495; Wiles and Bondi, 1979, pp. 16, 303; Doll, 1978b, p. 325; Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, 1975, p. 15).

An example of the impact of funding on curriculum development was the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Fund Learning Resources Project. Unprecedented funding of 8.37 million dollars was provided by the Alberta government to develop materials and resources as part of the social studies curriculum development project. (See pages 131-136 of this study.)

Report of Educational Commissions

Reports on education, both from governmental and non-governmental sources, can influence the direction of curriculum development. Herbert and Hersom (1974) point out that, while these reports are usually only advisory in nature, they ". . . sometimes are the most exciting and far-reaching instruments of curricular reform in Canada" (p. 31).

Albert Oliver (1977), in discussing the American educational situation, found a similar influence. He states:

> A student of the history of education in the United States can readily point to a number of educational groups, whose reports have carried much weight in educational decisions. (p. 175)

While these educational reports can influence curriculum policy making, it should be noted that the direction of the research may be influenced by existing social and political factors; and, the interpretation of the research findings given in these reports may also be influenced by these same factors. Tanner and Tanner (1975) write that:

> . . . larger sociopolitical forces exert a profound influence on educational goals and the curriculum but these forces also have significant effects on the direction and interpretation of educational research. (pp. 105-106)

In August, 1975, The Downey Report was released. The report was an evaluation of the implementation of the 1971 social studies program in Alberta classrooms. One of its conclusions was that the social studies program had not been widely implemented. As a result of this finding, steps were taken to begin the revisions to the 1971 program so as to ensure implementation. (See pages 83-98 of this study.)

Another example from Alberta education was the release of the report of the Commission on Educational Planning, A Choice of Futures, in October, 1972. The Worth Report, as it was commonly called, established certain directions for education in Alberta for several years.

Local School Boards

Kirst and Walker (1971) believe that school boards play less of a decisive role in curriculum development than indicated by the formal institutional description of their powers and prerogatives. They give four reasons for this:

a. the school board lacks expertise.

b. the members are part-time officials.

c. board members often do not have enough information.

d. curriculum issues are not important in school board elections. (p. 500)

John McNeil (1977) supports this view stating: "A recent political analysis shows local boards playing a diminishing role in actual decision-making" (p. 266).

Although the evidence suggests that school boards may not directly play a role in the development of a particular curriculum, they may serve as a pressure group or as an agent for community groups seeking input. This was in particular evidence in Alberta where the Edmonton Public School Board exerted strong pressure on the provincial department of education to increase the amount of Canadian content in Alberta social studies. (See page 118 of this study.) As well, school boards, by making decisions on budgets, staff allocations and the like, do exert some influence (Firth and Kimpston, 1973, p. 116).

The Educational Field as an Influence

There are a number of forces within the field of education that act to bring influence on the type of curriculum that is developed. The next section will discuss how various parts of the educational field may influence curriculum development.

Teachers as an Influence

A survey of the literature which discusses the influence that teachers have in curriculum development points to the large amount of influence teachers have in shaping the curriculum within their classroom.

John D. McNeil (1977) writes:

> At the classroom or instructional level, most teachers have the opportunity to define instructional objectives within an overall framework that indicates what is to be taught. Often they can design and order learning activities to achieve these ends. They make important curriculum decisions when they decide to group activities around particular organizing centers such as problems, projects, areas of inquiry, subject topics, and units. (p. 261)

This influence that teachers have in shaping curriculum within their classrooms was seen in the lack of implementation of the 1971 program in Alberta social studies classrooms. Despite the fact that teachers had a course of studies provided to them as the provincially sanctioned curriculum, many teachers did not implement the program in their classrooms. (See page 91 of this study.)

Robert S. Zais (1976) supports the view put forward by McNeill writing that ". . . teachers exercise considerable control over the operational curriculum" (p. 479). He also writes that teacher

> . . . influence is brought to bear primarily at the point where the teacher competence is strongest: applicability and feasibility of the new curriculum for teaching. (p. 479)

While teachers may have autonomy with regard to the method of presentation of materials within their classroom, their influence in designing the actual curriculum frameworks or curriculum policy appears to have been weak.

Kirst and Walker (1971) write that:

> . . . accounts of projects that teachers worked on raise doubts about the importance of teachers in decision-making that took place in those projects. For the most part, it seems that teachers were assigned the role of commenting on the "teachability" of the ideas generated by university scholars. (p. 497)

Zais (1976) cites those factors that can act to limit teachers' influence in developing curriculum policy. He states:

> If we know anything at all about teachers' responsibilities, we know that excessive class loads and unreasonably heavy unprofessional duties prevent them from having time for much, if any, curriculum work at all. . . . Teachers themselves do not view curriculum development as one of their professional duties. (p. 476)

In Alberta, although teachers' influence on social studies curriculum development has varied, it appeared to have had some impact on the development of the 1978 social studies program. Teacher input was solicited by the Department of Education, and had an influence on the revisions that occurred. (See pages 189-194 of this study.)

Teacher Organizations as an Influence

Organizations of teachers may make their influence felt on curriculum policy making. Herbert and Hersom (1974, p. 32) and Oliver (1977, p. 175) indicate that organized provincial teachers' groups exert their influence on curriculum development through briefs and position statements, through published documents such as curriculum units or guides and through their representation on Ministry Curriculum Committees. Some writers see the influence of teachers' organizations on curriculum development as being an important one in shaping curriculum policy. Robert S. Zais (1976) states that ". . . associations of teachers of special subjects are an effective lobby for determining local curriculum policy" (p. 472). Ronald C. Doll (1978a) is of the same view stating that "teachers associations and unions have greatly increased their power and influence during the past several years" (p. 340).

Kirst and Walker (1971), while acknowledging that teachers' organizations may be influential, contend that often teachers are not

organized or are so poorly organized that their influence may be insignificant. They state:

> Associations of teachers and special subjects can be very influential at the state level and use their power base. . . . Ironically, teachers of academic subjects are usually poorly organized and not united at the state level. Nobody consults them and their minimal influence is indicated . . . (p. 491)

It would appear then that organizations of teachers have exerted influences on curriculum development, although this influence may vary depending on their degree of organization and unity.

Prestige Educators as an Influence

Distinguished educators may act as an influence on curriculum development. Oliver (1977) writes that:

> Educators because of their prestige in the education profession, or with the public in general, or both, have markedly influenced educational programs. (p. 174)

Two distinguished educators in particular influenced the development of the Alberta 1971 social studies curriculum, namely Massialas and Aoki (Korteweg, 1972, p. 107).

The University and Research as an Influence

The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1975) in their Handbook on Curriculum Development notes that "the influence of the universities on the school curriculum is . . . a powerful and pervasive one" (p. 50).

Firth and Kimpston (1973) are in basic agreement stating that:

> Where in the past colleges and universities merely made recommendations, the trend is toward direct involvement in curriculum development both by the academician in the subject field and his counterpart in the college of education. (p. 162)

Kirst and Walker (1971) also support this view writing that "the major source of ideas for curriculum change has always been the college or university" (p. 495).

Other educational writers also discuss the important role that the university does play in educational change. These include: Orlosky and Smith, 1978a, p. 305; Oliver, 1977, pp. 161, 162, 168; and Ronald C. Doll, 1978a, p. 280).

Robert S. Zais (1974), while supporting the view that university professors are an influence on curriculum policy as subject matter specialists or as providers of the learning-process dimension, notes that the ". . . education faculty have not been significantly involved in these [curriculum] projects. . . ." (p. 474). He points to the professional organizations of university professors and their journals as having perhaps the most significant influence (pp. 474-475).

Social Factors as an Influence

Societal forces have and will continue to have an instrumental influence on curriculum development. Schools are rooted in the society in which they are found and thus reflect that society and the dominant value structure inherent within it. "The inescapable conclusion is that our schools are the products of the . . . society. . . ." (Wiles and Bondi, 1979, p. 225).

Tanner and Tanner (1975) support this view writing that:

> The functions of the school and the model of curriculum embraced at a particular time are reflections of the demands and expectations of the larger society. . . . Changing socio-political forces have exerted changing demands and expectations on the school. In various eras, the tendency is for the school to respond to whatever pressures are most dominant. (p. 106)

As well, Wiles and Bondi (1979) write that:

> . . . of all society's institutions, the school is probably the most yielding to the demands for change by outside forces. (p. 31)
>
> Schools are "open" systems, constantly buffeted by societal trends and pressures. Schools are "domesticated" organizations that are especially vulnerable to short-run demands from the environment. (p. 329)

And James B. Macdonald (1971a) writes:

> It should be clear . . . that any reforms in institutional settings [such as education] are intricately related to multiple social pressures and set in the context of a general cultural ethos. (p. 98)

The types of social studies curricula developed in Alberta in 1971 and 1978 reflected these social forces. The 1971 social studies curriculum, in its unstructured approach, meshed with the times which encouraged more flexibility and greater individual choice. In 1978, the social context was different. Social forces were moving in a more conservative direction, and this was reflected in the Alberta social studies curriculum. (See pages 81-82, 143-146 of this study.)

Ronald C. Doll (1978a) identifies three ways in which curriculum policy making is influenced by societal factors. He states:

> Society and culture affect curriculum improvement in three major ways: by inhibiting change through power of tradition, by speeding change stemming from social and cultural changes, and by applying pressures that originate in major segments of . . . society and culture. (p. 78)

The next section of this chapter will examine some of the social forces that can act to influence curriculum development.

Local Lay Community

Kirst and Walker (1971) put forward the position that the role of the local lay community appears to be minimal. The community tends to get involved only in certain curriculum issues in certain circumstances. Kirst and Walker (1971) label these as "episodic issues" (p. 499). John McNeil (1977) supports this view stating that "the public knows little about the content of courses and is not involved with general curriculum issues" (p. 266). Like Kirst and Walker, McNeill discusses the "episodic issues" which under special circumstances involve the public and then subside. For example, it is not textbooks that cause concern, but a particular textbook under a special set of circumstances (McNeil, 1977, p. 266). Such an example is in Huron County in Ontario, where schools have been under pressure to remove some of Margaret Laurence's books.

Although the lay community may not exert a continuous influence on all aspects of curriculum development, it may exert a great deal of influence in terms of "episodic issues." There are also signs that the influence of the local lay community may be expanding (Doll, 1978b, p. 324; Herbert and Hersom, 1974, p. 35). This expansion is particularly true in terms of the demands of minority groups for control over their children's education, e.g., demands for local control from the Black and North American Indian communities (Sand, 1971, p. 222).

Special Interest Groups

Special interest groups can have a significant impact on curriculum development. Albert Oliver (1977) defines special interest groups as:

> . . . groups ranging from a few people at the local level to associations national in scope which seek to promote and/or protect their own particular ideas and products. (p. 171)

Special interest groups may exert pressure on curriculum development in a number of ways. They may make overtures to the people who they perceive as having a direct input into curriculum policy making such as elected officials (provincial and local), individual teachers and their organizations, and members of the educational bureaucracy (government agencies). These overtures may be made in person or through literature, posters, films, news releases and other forms of public statements. Sometimes they may develop their own curriculum materials and distribute them to teachers, school boards, Departments of Education, and so on (Firth and Kimpston, 1973, p. 143; Oliver, 1977, p. 171). An example of this was the issue of increasing Canadian studies in schools throughout Canada. Individuals like Mel Hurtig and organizations supporting the stand of increasing Canadian studies exerted pressure on the educational system and achieved significant results. (See pages 112-119 of this study.)

The influence of these groups is usually dependent on their degree of organization, and the degree to which they can strike a responsive chord within sectors of the general public. As Oliver (1977) states, if they are successful in accomplishing this, they may have

> . . . lobbies powerful enough to influence legislation at the state level; others work on local boards of education. The results of such pressure may be laws and regulations or policies promoting ideas or prohibiting ideas. (p. 171)

Examples of special interest groups are trade unions, business organizations, religious groups, and patriotic organizations.

Parents

Parents, as part of the local lay community, do not necessarily make a large impact on curriculum policy making (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 499). However, parents organized around "episodic issues" or organized in special interest groups can carry considerable weight.

In Alberta, the influence of parents was felt in the area of "basic education." Most parents whose voices were heard in Alberta supported an emphasis on basic education and added their support to the growing "back to the basics" movement of the late 1970's. (See pages 148-149 of this study.)

Mass Media

Another societal factor that can influence curriculum development is the mass media (Wiles and Bondi, 1979, p. 15). Because the mass media serves as a vehicle for bringing issues to light or promoting certain ideas, it can influence public opinion and in fact enhance the influence of certain interest groups. This fact has certainly not been lost on groups that have effectively utilized this tool. Ronald C. Doll (1978a, p. 280) cites the authors of popularly written books and articles as having an influence in initiating curriculum change and determining its direction. Herbert and Hersom (1974, p. 37) talk about the impact that television and other mass media could have in magnifying complaints or in building a constructive attitude toward the schools.

In Alberta, during the latter part of the 1970's, St. John's Edmonton Report gave extensive coverage and support to an educational system which stressed the basics. The Edmonton Journal gave wide

coverage and editorial support to the forces who were demanding increased Canadian studies. (See pages 146-148 of this study.)

Other Influences

This section will examine those forces, other than the ones previously identified, that can act to influence curriculum development.

Students as an Influence

A survey of the literature dealing with curriculum development indicates differing positions regarding the influence that students have in curriculum policy making. On one side are those who hold the view that students have no formal influence over what they learn (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 503; McNeil, 1977, p. 265). As Kirst and Walker (1971) state: "This is so obvious a fact that research to establish it would be superfluous" (p. 503). The influence of students is limited to voting "with their feet" (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 503; McNeil, 1977, p. 265).

On the other side are those who feel that the influence of students on curriculum policy making is increasing (Doll, 1978b, p. 324; Herbert and Hersom, 1974, p. 35; Koopman, 1964, p. 44; Sand, 1971, p. 221).

Suppliers of Curriculum Materials as an Influence

Textbooks and other teaching materials exert a strong influence over curriculum content. The suppliers of teaching materials will have a potentially powerful effect on the curriculum because teachers often do not develop their own curriculum but rely on already produced

curriculum materials to form the base of their program. The publishers' control of the content of the textbook and other curriculum materials means virtual control over the curriculum (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 492). The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1975) in their Handbook of Curriculum Development states: "Textbooks exert a strong influence on instruction . . . because the content and sequence of instruction is often dependent upon them" (p. 128).

Robert S. Zais (1976), citing studies that show the extensive use of textbooks in the classroom, concludes that ". . . it is hardly an exaggeration to say that the textbook is the curriculum" (p. 473).

Other educational writers who discuss the significant influence that developers of curriculum materials exert on curriculum development are Wiles and Bondi (1979, pp. 16, 266), Owen (1973, p. 39), Oliver (1977, p. 178) and McNeil (1977, p. 268). The materials developed by the Alberta Department of Education for social studies (e.g., Kanata Kits, teaching units, etc.) were used widely by teachers. In doing so, social studies teachers depended, in many cases, on the materials to form the base of their program.

Despite the influence that suppliers of curriculum materials exert on curriculum, they must operate within the social and political context of their culture. Thus, they are influenced by those social and political forces that have a dominant influence on curriculum content during that time period. Kirst and Walker (1971) discuss this stating that "publishers are not able to operate as independent agents. Instead they reflect the conflicting desires of their customers i.e. the local schools and state authorities" (p. 492).

Robert S. Zais (1976) also discusses the impact of societal influences on publishers of curriculum materials. He states:

> Publishers, however, do not themselves always exercise control over textbook content. It is no secret that biology textbooks for the southern and western markets often are bound minus the chapter on evolution, just as history books are shipped to some school districts with the "Negro history" section deleted. In this regard, publishers clearly do not wield the power over curriculum content that is often attributed to them. (p. 473)

Standardized Examinations as an Influence

Whether on a local school district level, a provincial level, or a federal level, the use of standardized tests can influence what is taught in classrooms. Through this type of assessment via standardized examinations, curriculum influence will be felt because of the comparison with other results in other jurisdictions. After the results of student achievement on standardized tests are released, educators will be challenged to examine their own effectiveness and to seek better ways of moving toward these re-examined goals (Oliver, 1977, p. 157).

Standardized tests, while not dictating all details of a curriculum, will certainly establish a framework in terms of what will comprise the essential ingredients of curriculum content in a classroom. Kirst and Walker (1971) discuss this stating that "these tests do not entirely determine the detailed content of the curriculum but they do limit what teachers can spend their time doing" (p. 48). McNeil (1977) writes that "curriculum standardized tests pretty well define what students must know" (p. 268).

A discussion by Robert S. Zais (1976) on the influence of standardized examinations on curriculum content also supports the view

put forward by Kirst and Walker, Oliver, and McNeil. He states that "while these tests do not entirely control curriculum content, they certainly place important limitations on it at the local level" (p. 472).

Doll (1978a) writes that ". . . movements like national testing will perhaps take from teachers and other curriculum personnel a considerable amount of control of what is taught" (p. 89).

Curriculum Development as a Political Activity

This chapter has presented an overview of the major factors that can influence curriculum development. None of these factors operate in isolation, but interact with each other in a dynamic fashion. Some of the factors will act in concert with each other, while others will act in conflict. This conflict is to be expected. Oliver (1977) notes that "it would be unrealistic to expect complete agreement on all points, even with skilled leadership and the effective use of group dynamics" (p. 109). As well, not all of the factors will carry equal weight in influencing the direction of curriculum development. Depending on the circumstances, some factors or factor may exert more influence than others.

The very nature of curriculum development, which results in some alternatives being chosen over others, and in some factors influencing curriculum policy and curriculum policy making more than others, leads it into the political sphere. Kirst and Walker (1971), in their extensive review of curriculum policy making, state that:

> . . . curriculum decisions are not based on quantitative decision techniques or even on a great deal of latitude for deliberation

> and for complicated political processes to resolve conflicts of value among various groups and individuals. (p. 487)

Kirst and Walker use the phrase "political process" in the broad sense to encompass all those situations in which curriculum policy decisions must be made in the arena of conflicting values and purposes. As Robert S. Zais (1976) states:

> Political as it is used in this section is not confined to phenomena involving government; it refers more broadly to all the processes by which conflicts among competing public policies (and their underlying values) are resolved. (p. 470)

Many educational writers discuss the importance of understanding curriculum development as a political process in which conflict must be resolved in some fashion. These writers include Tanner and Tanner (1975, p. 105), Wiles and Bondi (1979, p. 27), Zais (1976, p. 470), Kirst and Walker (1971, p. 480), Koopman (1968, p. 43), Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (1975, p. 170), McNeil (1977, p. 260) and Doll (1978a, p. 105).

Perhaps Kirst and Walker (1971) express it best. They state:

> Throughout curriculum policy-making, political conflict is generated by the existence of competing values concerning the proper basis for deciding what to teach. The local school system and other public agencies responsible for these decisions must allocate these competing values in some way, even though this means that some factions or interests win and others lose on any given curriculum issue. The inevitability of conflicting demands, wants, and needs is responsible for the necessarily political character of curriculum policy-making, a character which cannot be avoided. (p. 480)

Summary

Chapter 2 was a review of the literature which identified those factors, individuals and groups who may act to influence curriculum development. Government may act as an influence. It can exert its

influence through legislation, government agencies, financial support, and educational commissions. The educational field may also exert influence on curriculum development through teachers, teachers' organizations, prestige educators, and the university and its research. Social forces may also influence the field of curriculum development. These forces may include the local lay community, special interest groups, parents, and the media. Other factors influencing curriculum development may be students, suppliers of curriculum materials and standardized examinations.

Sometimes these forces may act in conflict with each other where there is a disconsonant view of the direction that curriculum development should take. At other times, they may act in cooperation where there is a common view of curriculum development and its outcomes. Specific examples were provided to indicate circumstances in which certain groups, individuals, or factors have exerted an influence on curriculum.

The object of Chapter 3 is to compare the 1971 curriculum guide, Responding to Change, to the 1978 curriculum guide, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, and to examine the significant similarities and differences between these two programs of study.

Chapter 3 sets the stage for Chapter 4 which examines the influences exerted by various factors, individuals and groups on the development of the 1978 social studies curriculum. In doing so, Chapter 4 identifies those forces that acted to maintain or change certain aspects of the 1971 program. Chapter 4 thus outlines the factors that led to the subsequent similarities and differences found in the two social studies programs as identified in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3

A COMPARISON OF THE 1971 AND 1978 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA

The object of this chapter is to compare the 1971 curriculum guide, Responding to Change, to the 1978 curriculum guide, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, and to examine the significant similarities and differences between these two programs of study.

Social Studies Defined

In the 1971 curriculum guide, social studies was defined as the subject where students were to obtain a system of values. These values would allow the students to determine how they would live their lives and the kinds of actions they would take to improve their world. The guide states:

> . . . the new social studies curriculum is premised on the assumption that schools must help students in their quest for a clear, consistent and defensible system of values. . . . Social studies invites free and open inquiry . . . Such inquiry will serve the humanistic goals of education by offering students experience in living and not just preparation for living. . . . Students will deal with the "what ought to be" and will make this world a more desirable place in which to live. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5)

The 1978 curriculum guide defined social studies as the subject which promotes citizenship education. Students were to examine social issues in order to promote their constructive participation in local, national, and global affairs. The guide stated:

> Social studies is the school subject in which students learn to explore and, where possible, to resolve, social issues that

> are of public and personal concern. The objectives of the 1978 curriculum assume that carefully selected learning experiences related to inquiry into significant social issues will help students develop sensitivity to their human and natural environment, intellectual independence, moral maturity and effective participation in community affairs. These characteristics are believed necessary for constructive community, Canadian, and world citizenship in the coming decades. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5)

The 1971 social studies curriculum guide defined social studies in terms of values education. Implicitly the focus was on citizenship education although it focused more on individual values. The 1978 curriculum guide defined social studies more explicitly in terms of citizenship education.

Nature of Inquiry

In defining social studies, both the 1971 and 1978 curricula supported the position that "inquiry" would be a central component of the social studies program. In comparing the nature of this inquiry, one sees certain similarities and differences. This section will examine the similarities and differences in the two types of inquiry embodied in the two curricula.

The process of inquiry in the 1971 social studies program embraced the Raths' model of Values Clarification. The guide stated: ". . . the only valid productive activity for teachers is the teaching of the value-clarification skills" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64). This model involved three basic skills.

Choosing
1. Identifying all known alternatives
2. Considering all known consequences of each alternative
3. Choosing freely from among alternatives

Prizing	4.	Being happy with the choice
	5.	Affirming the choice, willingly and in public if necessary
Acting	6.	Acting upon the choice
	7.	Repeating the action consistently in some pattern of life. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5)

The importance given to Raths' model in examining social issues was indicated by the following: "To be significant the value issue must meet Raths' seven criteria of what is worth clarifying. . . ." (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 65).

In the 1978 social studies program, no mention was made of the Values Clarification process. In its place, the process of social inquiry took on the form of a wheel or a circle. The social inquiry process embodied in the 1978 program is illustrated in the diagram on page 43.

The two inquiry models had some similarities. Skill #1 (Choosing) in Values Clarification included these two steps:

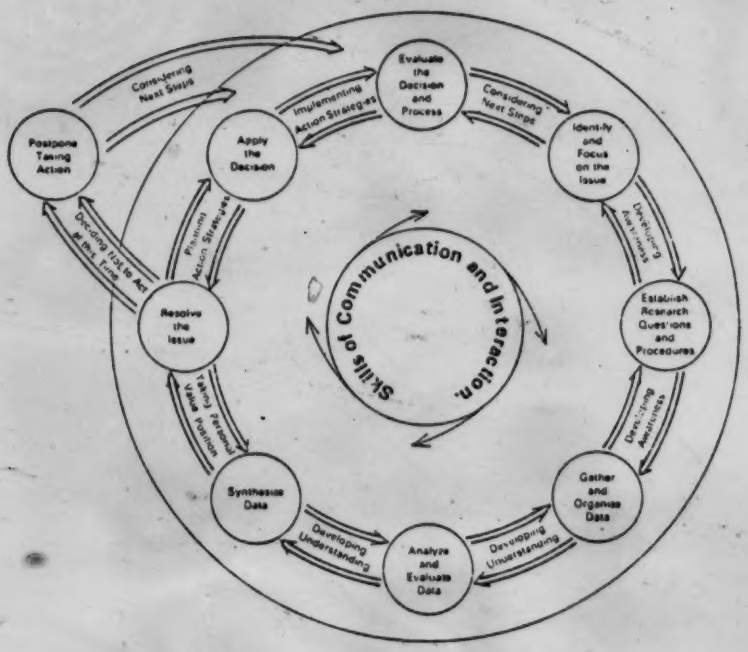
1. Identifying all known alternatives
2. Considering all known consequences of each alternative.

These two steps could be included in the stages found in "A Process for Social Inquiry." These were:

1. Gather and organize data
2. Analyze and evaluate data
3. Synthesize data.

Step #3 in the Choosing Skill ("choosing freely from among alternatives") corresponded with the step ("resolve the issue") found in A Process for Social Inquiry. The Values Clarification model also included as the last of its three basic skills the "acting" upon

A Process for Social Inquiry



Note: The system of two-way arrows indicates that progress through the process of inquiry is not lock-step. During inquiry, as an issue takes on a new perspective, students will frequently find it necessary to "double back" to steps covered previously.

(From: Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 14)

one's values. This "acting" was also found in A Process for Social Inquiry in the stage titled "apply the decision." In these areas, both models—Values Clarification and A Process for Social Inquiry—had steps that corresponded with each other.

Although these similarities existed between the two models, there were areas where the two models diverged.

A Process for Social Inquiry was presented as a circular model whereas the Values Clarification model was presented as a linear one. In A Process for Social Inquiry, the system of two way arrows indicated that:

> . . . progress through the process of inquiry is not lock-step. During inquiry, as an issue takes on new perspective, students will frequently find it necessary to "double back" to steps covered previously. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 14)

The linear approach of the Raths' model of Values Clarification did not provide for this.

An essential part of the Values Clarification Model was the action component. While social action was "encouraged" in A Process for Social Inquiry (Ibid., p. 15) the option was available for students to "postpone taking action" (Ibid., p. 14). Such an option did not exist in the Values Clarification model.

A Process for Social Inquiry also appeared to place more emphasis on the steps that led to "resolving the issue" or "making a choice" than the Values Clarification model. Four of the eight steps in A Process for Social Inquiry dealt with skills used in reaching the decision stage regarding a particular issue. These four steps were:

1. Establish research questions and procedures
2. Gather and organize data
3. Analyze and evaluate data
4. Synthesize data (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, pp. 14-15).

In the Values Clarification Model, two out of seven steps were devoted to these skills. These two steps were:

1. Identifying all known alternatives
2. Considering all known consequences of each alternative (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5).

Another difference between the two models of inquiry was the framework in which the inquiry took place. There appeared to be a more defined framework for inquiry in the 1978 curriculum as compared to the 1971 curriculum. The 1971 curriculum emphasized "free and open [emphasis added] inquiry" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5) while the 1978 curriculum identified carefully selected [emphasis added] learning experiences related to inquiry" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5).

Other indicators would also suggest that the inquiry approach in the 1978 curriculum operated within a more defined framework than the 1971 curriculum. The 1978 curriculum guide described "aspects of growth" that were to be fostered. These three "aspects of growth" were:

1. Growth in understanding of distinctive human values
2. Development of appreciations, and of positive attitudes towards self, other people, and the human environment
3. Development of competencies in processes of moral reasoning and value analysis. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, pp. 9, 10)

As well as the fostering of these three "aspects of growth," certain value objectives were prescribed. "At least one specific value objective for each aspect of growth is prescribed for each grade level topic" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9).

The 1978 curriculum also encouraged the development of "positive attitudes" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9), the building of a "sense of community" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10) and the promotion of "constructive citizenship" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5).

The 1971 curriculum, in contrast to the 1978 curriculum did not provide as much direction for inquiry. The 1971 curriculum guide, instead of advocating the fostering of certain "aspects of growth" or "value objectives," placed its emphasis on the process of attaining one's values, rather than on what those values would be. The 1971 guide stated:

> . . . the process of valuing is the values component of the new program. The process by which a student arrives at his values is more important than the value position he obtains. . . . The primary purpose of the process is to prepare students for confronting public issues rationally rather than to demonstrate the validity of any particular point of view. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64)

While the 1971 guide identified certain basic social and moral values as being worthy of attention, it again stressed that the process was key.

> This [emphasis on process] does not indicate a lack of concern or respect for certain basic social and moral values on which

> society is in general agreement as major tenets of the democratic faith. Those deemed particularly worthy of attention in the new social studies are: the dignity of man, freedom, equality, justice, empathy and loyalty. . . . [However], specific values to be developed or emphasized should be methodological: adherence to the scientific method, respect for evidence and concern for truth. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, pp. 64-65)

The 1978 guide appeared to promote or advocate certain value positions, e.g., "constructive citizenship," "positive attitudes," etc., while the 1971 curriculum guide held to the position that specific values were not to be taught. The guide stated:

> It must be emphasized that there is no truly universal set of values. . . . The only values acceptable to an authentic individual are those which he has freely chosen. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64)

Another area where the inquiry aspect of the 1978 curriculum operated within a more defined framework than the 1971 program was in the area of social action.

The 1971 curriculum guide did not discuss the concept of taking action on one's values to any great degree. The limited discussion of taking action in the 1971 guide did not provide any parameters within which the action would occur. It was left "wide open" for any interpretation of what this action would entail. The guide stated:

> Student will deal with not only "what is" but also with "what ought to be" and will have the opportunity to make this world a more desirable place in which to live. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 13)

The 1978 curriculum guide, while encouraging social action, presented a much more structured view of social action. The guide stated:

> While the concept of active involvement is encouraged as a significant aspect of education for active citizenship, the role of the teacher in helping students organize and implement

> social action projects is one requiring a strong sense of responsibility [emphasis in original]. It requires sensitivity to the maturity of students, to the expectations of students, to institutional norms, and to democratic processes. Because of the need for sensitivity in carrying out this type of learning experience, social action is not prescribed, but is encouraged where possible, given the above cautions. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 15)

The action advocated by the 1971 curriculum was very sweeping (". . . make this world a more desirable place in which to live") (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 13) while the suggestions for action given in the 1978 program appeared more concretely oriented to the students' school or community. As the guide stated:

> Create a plan of action to apply the decision. (e.g. work for an improved school or classroom environment; provide services to a community group on a close interpersonal basis; express ideas in social settings, or participate actively in a political process. In particular, students should be encouraged to regard their school as a real and viable social institution, and to find ways to improve it.) (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 15)

The more defined nature of the inquiry aspect of the 1978 curriculum was seen in its "Summary" statement. The "Summary" statement stated that the discussion of inquiry into social issues would be further delineated within each grade level.

> Social studies has been defined as the school subject in which students learn to explore and, where possible, to resolve social issues that are of public and personal concern. In the preceding pages, the general objectives of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum, Interim Edition, have been categorized in accordance with the particular perspectives of valuing, knowledge, and skills. In the following pages, these objectives are developed further in relation to grade level content, and to provide a systematic and sequential base for the social studies education of Alberta students. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 16)

In contrast, the "Conclusion" statement of the 1971 curriculum guide provided for a wide latitude of changes and modifications to be made to the inquiry model presented in the guide.

> The above-noted inquiry models have been developed by various curriculum developers. Teachers may look upon them as guides for organizing learning experiences in their classrooms and feel free to extend, modify and develop these and other models of inquiry to suit the needs of themselves and their students. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 99)

Both the 1971 and 1978 social studies curricula emphasized the importance of inquiry. In the inquiry models presented in the curriculum guides, there were certain similarities in the steps which occurred in both curricula. The major difference between the two models of inquiry was that the framework for inquiry in the 1978 curriculum was more structured than the one found in the 1971 curriculum. While both curricula supported the value of social inquiry, the 1978 curriculum defined inquiry more specifically.

Learning Objectives

The 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum placed equal emphasis on three objectives. These three objectives were:

1. Value Objectives
2. Knowledge Objectives
3. Skill Objectives. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9)

The 1971 Alberta social studies curriculum also acknowledged these objectives as the three components of social studies. The guide stated: "Strategies of inquiry combine the three components of the Social Studies in Alberta—knowledge, skills and valuing. . . ."

(Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 95) and "There is a definite relationship among knowledge objectives, skill development, and values clarification. It is this relationship that secures the academic validity of the curriculum" (Ibid., p. 13).

However, in the 1971 curriculum there appeared to be greater emphasis placed on the valuing component. The guide stated: ". . . the objectives of the new social studies place high priority on the valuing process" (Ibid., p. 5). As well, it stated: "The valuing process has become content" (Ibid., p. 64). A question remains as to why the valuing component was stressed in the 1971 program. Some have argued that this was done in order to make valuing predominant. Others have argued that since valuing had received no emphasis in the previous social studies curriculum, it was necessary to emphasize valuing in order for it to receive equal recognition with the knowledge and skills component of the program.

The next section of this chapter will examine how each of the curriculum guides discussed the three learning objectives bearing in mind that the valuing objectives were key in the 1971 curriculum while the 1978 curriculum gave an equal focus to the three objectives—values, knowledge, and skills.

Knowledge Objectives

Knowledge in both the 1971 and the 1978 curricula was categorized into three elements: facts, concepts, and generalizations (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 90; Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10).

The definitions of these three elements, found in the curriculum guides, were very similar. In the 1971 guide, "facts" were defined as "items of specific information at the lowest available level of abstraction" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 90). In a similar vein the 1978 curriculum guide defined "facts" as ". . . specific items of information about things that actually exist, or existed in the past" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10).

"Concepts," in the 1971 guide, were defined as ". . . abstractions which refer to a class or group of objects all of which have characteristics in common" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 90). Similarly, in the 1978 guide, "concepts" were defined as being ". . . more abstract and may be thought of as subsuming a number of objects or events that have common attributes" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10).

In the 1971 curriculum guide, "generalizations" were defined as involving ". . . relationship(s) among two or more concepts" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 91). "Generalizations" in the 1978 curriculum guide were defined in a similar fashion. "Generalizations are derived through a process of relating significant ideas to each other" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11).

The 1971 guide supported the view that facts must be taught in relationship to concepts and generalizations. The guide stated:

> It is increasingly unfashionable to "just teach facts." These facts should be related to the development of concepts and generalizations. . . . Specific facts become meaningful when their relationship to concepts or generalizations is understood. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 90)

The 1978 curriculum guide was not as clear on the role of "facts" in the knowledge component. While stating that facts were important in order to develop "higher levels of understanding," the guide did not specify precisely what it meant by "higher levels of understanding." The exact function or role of factual knowledge was rather ambiguous. The guide stated:

> Even though many specific facts may quickly lose their relevance, students need to acquire a broad sense of selected factual information if higher levels of understanding are to be developed. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10)

The need for students to possess knowledge so that they could have some impact on their world was recognized in both guides. The 1978 guide stated: "Knowledge is one form of power. Only by 'knowing' their world can people exercise even partial control of that world" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10). The 1971 guide stated: "Knowledge in the social studies is gathered . . . for the understanding and solution of problems and issues" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 74).

Both curricula also shared the view that the acquisition of knowledge was a dynamic process. The 1971 guide stated: "The student's creation of his own knowledge is a continuing process. It is a process of adding to and revising a structure of knowledge" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 93). The guide also quoted Suchman to support its view of the dynamic nature of knowledge acquisition.

> Detrimental to inquiry is the belief that knowledge is absolute, that it must be passed down to the student from

> authorities and that the student must accept it as the truth. (Suchman, 1968, quoted in Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 96)

In a similar fashion, the 1978 curriculum guide stated:

> Knowledge is also dynamic. Because the pool of knowledge is always growing and changing, effective citizens must have both the commitment and the skills to modify and extend their knowledge continuously. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10)

Both curricula drew on history, geography, and the social sciences for their knowledge components. The 1971 guide stated: "Concepts used in the Alberta Social Studies program are drawn from history, geography and the social sciences" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 93). The 1978 guide stated: "The knowledge component of social studies objectives is drawn mainly from history, geography and the social sciences" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10).

Even though both curricula incorporated the social sciences into their knowledge component, the 1978 curriculum guide placed a greater emphasis on history. The guide stated: "History, in particular, integrates much of human experience and provides an essential base for the understanding of contemporary social issues" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 10). This emphasis on history was not found in the 1971 curriculum guide.

The 1971 curriculum utilized the interdisciplinary approach in determining curricular content. The guide stated: "The Alberta curriculum is interdisciplinary. Concepts from the social disciplines are integrated in such a way as to be indistinguishable as separate entities" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 93).

The 1978 curriculum guide also stressed the utilization of an interdisciplinary approach. The guide stated: ". . . thirteen interdisciplinary concepts have been identified to provide the basic organizing ideas from which the knowledge base of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum is developed" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11).

The 1971 guide identified "Interaction" as the key organizing concept for the social studies. As the guide stated:

> The major concept to be developed in the Alberta Social Studies curriculum is INTERACTION [emphasis in original]. The interaction concept is basic to most social disciplines. It is a process through which man relates to his social and physical environment. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 93)

The Interaction Process was comprised of three concepts. Each concept was comprised of four sub-concepts.

1. Environment - time
   space
   culture
   system

2. Causality - goals
   norms
   technology
   power

3. Interdependence - cooperation
   conflict
   stability
   change.

(See Appendix C for a diagrammatic representation of the Interaction Process.)

While there was an attempt to correspond these concepts to the grade level themes, through a diagram provided in the handbook (see Appendix D), the connection between these concepts and the actual units

of study was not detailed in the unit outlines found at each grade level. There was little clarification of how these organizing concepts would be incorporated into the study of the value issues found at each grade level.

The 1978 curriculum guide identified thirteen interdisciplinary concepts which ". . . provide the basic organizing ideas from which the knowledge base of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum is developed" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11). These thirteen concepts were grouped under three headings:

1. The Human Being as Individual
2. Human Processes
3. Human Systems.

(See Appendix E for descriptions of each "organizing concept" and lists of related and sub-concepts.)

Unlike the 1971 curriculum, each unit of study in the 1978 curriculum guide incorporated selected concepts from the list. The connection between the "organizing concepts" and the actual unit of study were quite detailed and served to clarify how the "organizing concepts" would be incorporated into the study of the value and social issues found at each grade level. (See Appendix F for an example of the incorporation of the "organizing concepts" into the unit outlines.)

Both curriculum guides discussed the purpose of identifying their respective "organizing concepts." There were two reasons given: (1) they were key concepts found within history, geography, and/or the social sciences and (2) they fit the curriculum. The

1971 guide outlined these reasons in the following manner:

> Interaction is a key concept in the understanding of social problems. History, geography and the social sciences describe in part man's interaction with his social and physical environment. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 8)

The 1978 guide outlined its selecting criteria as follows:

> The concepts have been selected according to the following criteria:
>
> - They exist as basic organizing ideas in either history, geography, or the social sciences, and have application in a number of disciplines;
>
> - They are particularly appropriate to the definition of citizenship that underlies the Alberta Social Studies curriculum and the processes of active citizenship that are promoted in the curriculum. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11)

Skill Objectives

Both curricula related their skill development to the models of inquiry that they had established. The 1978 guide stated that its two basic areas of skill development (inquiry skills and participation skills) corresponded to its basic model of inquiry.

> Inquiry skills correspond to the stages of a basic model of inquiry. . . . Participation skills comprise four "areas" of skills and can be developed at all stages of inquiry. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11)

The 1971 curriculum guide discussed skills in terms of relating them to its problem solving strategy.

> Knowledge in the social studies is gathered for the purpose of establishing concepts and generalizations, and for the understanding and solution of problems and issues. The actions of gathering and processing knowledge, employing interpersonal relations and applying a problem-solving strategy reflect skills. Skill development allows that these actions will be performed efficiently. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 74)

Because both curricula had adopted different models for inquiry, the skills identified in each were "wedded" to their respective model. Thus, the 1971 curriculum guide stated that "the valuing process is the major skill to be applied in the Alberta Social Studies" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 74). The 1978 guide discussed its skills in terms of their correspondence to ". . . the stages of a basic model for inquiry" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11).

However, in subsequent discussion of what those skills would entail, there was considerable overlap between the two curricula. The following charts illustrated this:

1971—Inquiry Skills	1978—Inquiry Skills
1. Identifying and clarifying the problem	1. Identify and focus on the issue
2. Formulating hypotheses	2. Establish research questions and procedures
3. Collecting data 4. Classifying data	3. Gather and organize data
5. Analyzing data and evaluating the desirability and feasibility of taking action on the problem	4. Analyze and evaluate data 5. Synthesize data 6. Resolve the issue
6. Proposing a course of action and examining the desirability and feasibility of taking action on the problem. Reflective thinking can continue.	7. Apply the Decision 8. Evaluate the Decision, the Process, and (where pertinent) the Action
(Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, pp. 88-89)	(Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, pp. 14-15)

The above chart indicated that the skills as outlined were nearly identical to each other.

1971—Social Skills	1978—Participation Skills
1. Expressing one's own feelings and ideas to others	1. Communicate effectively
2. Interpreting the feelings and ideas of others	2. Interpret ideas and feelings of self and others
3. Responding to feelings and ideas of others in a manner appropriate to the occasion	3. Participate in Group Decision-Making
4. Cooperating with others, though not to the extent of compromising basic values	4. Contribute to a "Sense of Community"
(Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 88)	(Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 16)

The only significant difference between the two columns was found in #4. While the emphasis in the 1978 curriculum was on building ". . . a sense of sharing of group goals and aspirations" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 16), the 1971 curriculum cautioned against this and asserted that the individual's own values must take precedence over the group's goals (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 88).

The 1978 program of studies followed a much more systematic development of skills. At each grade level, and for each topic, a list of inquiry skills and participation skills plus examples were

provided (see Appendix G).

As well, these skills were prescribed at each grade and topic level, making it mandatory for these skills to be "covered" by students and teachers. The guide stated:

> Specific inquiry and participation skills that are prescribed for grade level topics are accompanied by examples that demonstrate possible applications of skills to topic content. To maximize systematic development through the grades, all skill "areas" are prescribed for treatment in each topic [emphasis in original]. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 11)

Unlike the 1978 program of studies, the 1971 curriculum did not pursue skill development in such a systematic way. Instead, several pages of lists of skills were given which provided only a general indication where skills should be introduced, developed systematically or retaught, maintained and extended (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, pp. 75-84) (see Appendix H).

In fact, the 1971 guide cautioned against prescribing skills for certain grade levels.

> Although it is possible to make a general plan for continuity in skill development, it is not possible to set a particular place in the school program where it is always best to introduce a specific skill. A skill should be introduced when it is needed to solve a particular problem. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 87)

Another difference found between the two programs was the emphasis placed on the affective domain of skill development. The 1971 curriculum placed a great deal of emphasis on the affective domain. The guide stated: "Skills in the affective domain deserve increasing attention as students participate more fully in the valuing process" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 89). The 1978 guide did incorporate certain skills from the affective domain

into its program, but there was no discussion or emphasis on this area in the discussion of "Skill Objectives."

Value Objectives

In the 1971 curriculum, knowledge was defined as being of secondary importance to the idea of children developing their own value positions. The emphasis was placed on the valuing process (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64). In the 1978 curriculum, the valuing process was de-emphasized with equal weight being given to value, knowledge, and skill objectives (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9).

The nature of values was also defined differently in the two curricula. The 1971 curriculum upheld Values Clarification as its model of inquiry (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5). The 1978 curriculum used A Process for Social Inquiry as its model of inquiry (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 14).

The 1978 curriculum, much more than the 1971 program, stressed that citizenship, to be effective, must be positive and constructive (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, pp. 9-10). The "open and free inquiry" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5) advocated by the 1971 program would not necessarily lead to the adoption of the view of citizenship espoused in the 1978 curriculum.

Both curricula acknowledged the need for growth in the affective domain. The 1978 guide stated that:

> Human behaviour is influenced strongly by the feelings that we experience toward ourselves, other people, and our environments. An emphasis on affective growth as a part of the valuing process may therefore assist students to establish positive interactions with their world. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9)

The 1971 guide also supported the development of affective capacities. It stated: "It is essential to distinguish these affective and cognitive capacities and to direct educational efforts along both dimensions" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5).

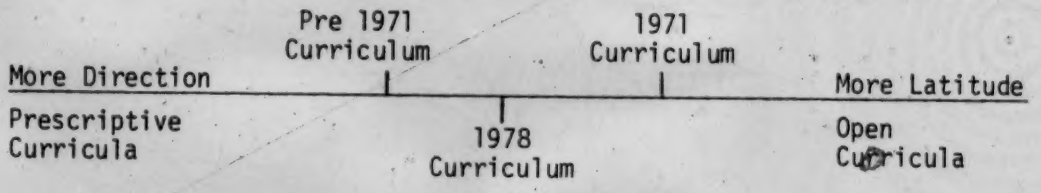
Despite this recognition of the need for the affective dimension to be utilized in Alberta social studies by both curricula, the 1971 program gave much more emphasis to this component. The 1971 guide stated that "skills in the affective domain deserve increasing attention as students participate more fully in the valuing process" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 89).

The definition of "values" in both the 1971 and 1978 curricula was very similar. The 1978 guide described values as ". . . basic or fundamental ideas about what is important in life; they are standards of conduct which cause individuals, groups and nations to think and act in certain ways" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9). In a similar fashion, the 1971 guide described values as:

> an individual's or a group's conviction of what is right, proper and desirable. They are the standards people use in observing and judging the world around them and in deciding how they themselves will act. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64)

Content and Objectives

A difference between the 1971 curriculum and the 1978 curriculum was the greater degree of prescription and description found in the 1978 curriculum as compared to the 1971 curriculum. The following diagram from the Alberta Education Social Studies Inservice Project portrayed this:



(Alberta Education, The Revised Curriculum: Intents, Structure, and Resources—The Leader's Manual, n.d., p. 53)

This move to greater specificity in the 1978 curriculum was seen in a number of ways.

In the 1978 curriculum, three topics were "prescribed" in grades one to ten, and two topics were "prescribed" in grades eleven and twelve (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6). For each of the topics, specific content descriptions and objectives were given. As well, specific time allocations were made mandatory. The guide stated:

> To ensure that minimum requirements are met in each student's total social studies program . . . an equivalent of four weeks' class time must be devoted to each topic at all grade levels. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

The 1971 curriculum, in contrast, provided very little prescription. Objectives were only provided in very general terms and

were to be made more specific at the school system and school level. The guide stated:

> The Department of Education develops lists of objectives and curriculum outlines in broad general terms. In the school system, and within a specific school, it is expected that further specification of objectives, content, and processes will be developed. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50)

> This scope and sequence is very general, thus permitting teachers and students to select learning opportunities according to their own needs and interests. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 8)

> Objectives can be used by teachers as means rather than ends, and as guides rather than prescriptive monoliths. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 15)

The move to greater prescription and specificity in the 1978 curriculum allowed for greater community and provincial standardization as compared to the 1971 curriculum.

The 1978 curriculum, as discussed previously, downplayed the valuing process found in the 1971 program and gave more emphasis to the knowledge and skills component (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 64; Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 9). The approach to valuing had also changed from one of Values Clarification in 1971 (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5) to A Process for Social Inquiry (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 14).

The context for inquiry was more defined in the 1978 curriculum. As the guide stated: "Topics define the context for inquiry into social issues" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 7). This type of inquiry was in

contrast to the 1971 curriculum which promoted "free and open inquiry" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 5) in its course outline.

As well, the concepts contained within the 1978 curriculum guide had been more clearly defined and spiralled, and skills had been included in the program in a more systematic fashion. As the guide stated:

> Prescribed objectives have been selected and validated to take into account students' ages and interests, and to ensure a logical sequence of learning experiences through the elementary and secondary grades. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5)

The 1971 curriculum structured two-thirds of social studies class time leaving one-third of social studies class time to ". . . problems that are of current interest to students and teachers" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 10). The 1978 curriculum also provided unstructured time for "inquiry into issues that are selected by teachers, students, and community" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5). This time had been reduced to one-quarter of social studies class time in the 1978 curriculum (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5).

Both curricula discussed the importance of student involvement in determining the nature of study in this unstructured time. The 1971 guide stated:

> . . . the teacher should view the one-third time as an opportunity for students to develop independence and responsibility. The amount of teacher leadership required in the planning and use of the one-third time will vary according to the ability, experience and maturity of the class. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 10)

In a similar manner, the 1978 guide stated:

> Students should be involved in determining specific issues for inquiry, as well as methodologies for research, and resources to be used. As students progress through the grades, the extent to which they can assume responsibility for directing their own inquiry in the one-quarter time increases. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5)

One difference in this otherwise commonly shared view was that the 1978 curriculum gave more emphasis to community involvement in the unstructured time. The guide stated: "Topics should also reflect the interests and ideas of the community, where possible" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5). This discussion of community involvement in this unstructured time was largely absent in the 1971 program of studies.

There were differences in the guides in the types of emphasis placed on outlining the general philosophy of the programs and the specifics of each grade level topic. In the 1978 curriculum guide, 12 of the 62 pages (approximately one-fifth) were devoted to the overview of the Alberta social studies curriculum which contained the theoretical underpinnings and general outline of the curriculum. The rest of the curriculum guide (approximately four-fifths) was devoted to the detailed course description at each grade level.

In contrast, the 1971 curriculum guide devoted 75 of 100 pages (three-quarters) to a discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of the curriculum, and the general guidelines and practical ideas that could be used in implementing the curriculum. Twenty-five of the 100 pages (one-quarter) were used to outline the grade level units.

Absent from the 1978 curriculum were the long lists of bibliographies and references to educational writers and theoreticians contained within the 1971 program of studies.

Canadian Content

There was a significant increase in Canadian content from the 1971 program of studies to the 1978 program. The 1978 guide stated that "the allocation to Canadian studies has been increased substantially in the revised curriculum, and constitutes about 50% of the total prescribed program" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 7).

An analysis done on the amount of Canadian content in the 1978 social studies curriculum showed that the amount of Canadian content was actually closer to 60%, as compared to 47% in 1971 and 43% in 1964/65 (see Appendix I). The topics that were incorporated into Canadian studies in the 1978 curriculum also tended to focus in on Canadian history and geography. This was particularly evident at the Grade four to ten levels (see Appendix J).

Support Materials and Resources

The 1971 and 1978 curricula had different approaches to support material and resources. Very few guidelines or prescribed resources were identified in the 1971 program. In contrast, the 1978 program provided a much more structured approach to support material.

The 1971 program encouraged the extensive use of a wide variety of support material. The guide stated:

> The new social studies program requires a wide range of instructional resources. No single textbook will do. Students will need a variety of appropriate print materials such as reference books, periodicals, newspapers, pamphlets, and articles. Also, they will need to enrich reading and verbal learning through the use of audio-visual materials such as films, filmstrips, slides, pictures, diagrams, tapes, recordings, artifacts and models. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50)

Teachers in a school or school system were to be responsible for assessing and choosing of resources. The guide stated: "Groups of social studies teachers in a school or a school system should find it advantageous to coordinate their efforts in assessing, accumulating, and organizing the resource materials" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50).

Teachers were also encouraged to use community resources in their social studies program. The guide stated:

> The use of the resources of community persons, institutions, and organizations should be considered as well in planning the instructional resources. By the use of speakers, field trips, interviews, surveys, and by the involvement of students in community projects, the social studies classroom can draw upon community resources for learning. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50)

The 1978 curriculum provided a much more structured approach to support materials. At each grade level, a limited number of resources were prescribed. The 1978 curriculum guide stated:

> Policies regarding prescribed resources for the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum are as follows:
>
> - Three to ten items (print and non-print) per grade are available for purchase through the School Book Branch
>
> - Resources, once prescribed, will remain prescribed and listed in School Book Branch catalogues for a minimum of three years. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

To encourage the use of prescribed resources, a 40 percent

discount was made available for books purchased through the School Book Branch (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6). Such a discount was not provided for resources purchased under the 1971 program.

The 1978 program also provided a large amount of additional support materials developed by the Department of Education. Such material was not available under the 1971 program. The 1978 support material included:

1. Teaching Units

> These units address grade level topic objectives and are designed to make maximum use of prescribed resource materials. Where prescribed resources for a topic have not been identified, teaching units will be self-contained. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

2. Kanata Kits

> . . . self-contained multi-media resource units that complement the social studies curriculum. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

3. Junior Atlas of Alberta

4. Relief Model of Alberta

5. Books for Young Readers

6. Monographs

> A selection of monographs on topics of special significance to social studies teachers will be developed and made available to Alberta educators and other interested persons upon request. Monographs will be developed on the basis of needs identified during the field-testing process. The first monograph, A Handbook for Unit Planners, is being designed to help curriculum planners translate the interim curriculum guidelines into detailed social studies curriculum units. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

In the 1978 program, teachers were encouraged to use additional materials. The guide stated: "Additional materials may be used, and are encouraged for use, in social studies classes" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6). However, teachers were also cautioned about their selection and use of these "additional materials."

> Teachers are reminded that the selection of resources beyond the prescribed and supplementary resource listings of Alberta Education is subject to the approval of school boards. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6)

Such cautions were not given in the 1971 program.

The assessment of materials and learning resources in the 1978 program was not the responsibility of individual teachers as was the case in the 1971 program, but was one that was assumed by personnel in the Department of Education who undertook in-depth evaluations of material before that material appeared on "prescribed" or "supplementary" lists of the School Book Branch.

Role of the Teacher

The teacher had a more autonomous role in the 1971 curriculum as compared to the 1978 curriculum. In the 1971 curriculum, the teacher was to play a paramount role in developing his/her curriculum for use in the classroom. In the 1971 curriculum guide, the statement of objectives offered only a general indication of the processes and content of learning opportunities in the social studies and left the planning to teachers. The guide stated:

> More detailed planning of learning opportunities is the responsibility of each teacher and class. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 8)

> The task of translating the provincial curriculum outlines into effective learning opportunities for students is the responsibility of the teacher. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50)

The teacher also played a central role in developing, assessing, and using resources. The guide stated:

> The accumulation and organization of these instructional resources is another matter of primary concern. . . . Teachers are advised to assess references and other materials . . . in order to assure materials are most useful for their program, and to establish priority lists of materials to be purchased. . . . (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50)

The 1978 curriculum provided a less autonomous role for teachers. There were a number of indicators of this. Content and objectives were more detailed and prescribed (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5). Rather than the teacher having responsibility for the detailed planning of objectives, the curriculum guide outlined these. This is not to say that the teacher had no role in "translating the guidelines into effective learning opportunities for students," but that this role was more restricted.

Another indicator was that time allocations were prescribed for each topic (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6). The allocations were not provided in the 1971 curriculum.

As well, the unstructured time which was to be planned by teachers and students had been reduced from one-third time in the 1971 program to one-quarter time in the 1978 program.

In the 1978 program, lists of "prescribed" learning resources were provided as well as a cautionary note stating that ". . . the

selection of resources beyond the prescribed and supplementary resource listings of Alberta Education is subject to the approval of local school boards" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 6). In the 1971 program, teachers had the authority to "develop, assess, and use resources" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 50).

In the 1978 program, the teacher was presented with more assistance and more structure as compared to the 1971 program.

Role of the Student

The role of the student in the 1971 program was one of active participation. Students were encouraged to participate in planning the objectives and learning experiences in their social studies classrooms, and in evaluating those experiences. The guide stated: "Teachers [should] permit students to set goals [rather] than goals [being] set exclusively by teachers" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 48). As well, the guide stated:

> Involve the students in planning the objectives and learning experiences, and in evaluating the success of these learning experiences in the achievement of objectives. Provide for individuality. Draw upon the special interests and abilities of individual students, and endeavor to adapt content and assignments to these interests and abilities. (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, pp. 48-49)

The teacher was encouraged to build upon the interests of the students. The 1971 guide stated that motivation of students could be enhanced by ". . . fostering and promoting as much as possible, the real interests of students so that they will feel like pursuing those interests that are important to them" (Alberta Education, Responding to Change, 1971, p. 48).

The view that students were active participants in the planning of objectives and learning experiences, and in their own evaluation was largely absent in the 1978 program of studies. Only in the area of the one-quarter unstructured time was a similar view held. Here the curriculum guide encouraged the cooperation of students and teachers in selecting curricular topics, resources and methodology.

> Topics should be selected by teachers and students in co-operation. . . . Students should be involved in determining specific issues for inquiry, as well as methodologies for research, and resources to be used. (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5)

However, the topics chosen in the one-quarter unstructured time were not to be based solely on students' interest, but were also to be based on "community interests." As the guide stated: "Topics should also reflect the interests and ideas of the community" (Alberta Education, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition, 1978, p. 5).

Summary

Chapter 3 examined the significant similarities and differences between the 1971 social studies program and the 1978 social studies program. The charts found on pages 73-75 summarize the similarities and differences. Both the 1971 and 1978 curricula focused on the inquiry process, but a number of changes made the 1978 curriculum more structured and prescriptive.

Chapter 4 examines the forces that exerted influence on the social studies curriculum development process. It examines the antecedents to change and identifies those factors, individuals and

	1971 Social Studies	1978 Social Studies
1. Canadian Content	a. 47% of curriculum—Canadian studies	a. 60% of curriculum—Canadian studies
	b. concentrated in Grade 5 and 10	b. at least one topic per grade deals with Canadian studies
2. Content and Objectives	a. inquiry is a central feature	a. inquiry is a central feature
	b. little structured content and few prescribed objectives	b. prescribed content and objectives—3 topics per grade (Gr. 1-10), 2 topics per grade (Gr. 11 and 12)
	c. no time allocations for units of study	c. specific time allocations for each topic of study
	d. valuing emphasized over knowledge and skills	d. valuing is still an important component, but there is a more equal balance among knowledge, skills, and values
	e. nature of inquiry—values clarification - "free and open"	e. nature of inquiry—social inquiry - more structured
	f. skills—inquiry skills identified - lack of systematic development - emphasis on affective domain	f. skills—inquiry skills nearly identical to 1971 curriculum - prescribed for each grade topic - less emphasis on affective domain

	1971 Social Studies	1978 Social Studies
	g. one-third unstructured time	g. an unstructured component but reduced somewhat to one-quarter time
	h. use of all the social sciences	h. all social sciences incorporated into curriculum, although greater emphasis on history
3. View of Citizenship	a. students deal not only with the "what is," but with the "what ought to be" in order to make the world "a more desirable place in which to live"	a. "positive and constructive" citizenship
	b. students develop a clear, consistent, and defensible system of values	b. social action encouraged
	c. social action explicit in values clarification model	
4. Support Materials	a. extensive lists of resources—approx. 300 at the elementary level and 350 at the secondary level	a. 3 to 10 resources per grade—40% off prescribed resources
	b. little development of support material at the provincial level	b. development of support materials—Kanata Kits, teaching units, other Alberta Heritage Learning Resources
	c. little in-service	c. plan for in-service in effect

	1971 Social Studies	1978 Social Studies
5. Curriculum Guides	a. emphasis on the theoretical underpinnings of the program	a. simpler language—less emphasis on the theoretical aspects of the program
	b. little specificity re: teaching objectives	b. detailed teaching objectives outlined for each grade level
6. Role of the Teacher	Great deal of autonomy	Little autonomy—more centralized control
	a. teacher as curriculum developer	a. less responsibility for curriculum development
	b. teacher as resource selector, evaluator, and developer	b. prescribed resources—less role for teacher in evaluating and selecting resources
		c. greater standardization and provincial continuity
7. Student Involvement	a. active participation encouraged in all aspects of the program	a. less of a role for student participation—student participation encouragement in one-quarter unstructured time
8. Evaluation	a. emphasis on valuing and the affective domain made it more difficult to evaluate the program by traditional means	a. structured content facilitated evaluation, although valuing component still difficult to evaluate by traditional means

groups who were involved in the process of curriculum development. The chapter also examines the process of curriculum development that occurred and the outcomes of that curriculum development process.

Chapter 4

THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Antecedents to Change

This section of Chapter 4 examines some of the major antecedents to the changes that occurred in the development of the 1978 social studies curriculum in Alberta. Three major events are examined: the 1967 Conference, the release of The Downey Report, and the changes in personnel and the curriculum development structures of the Alberta Department of Education.

The 1967 Conference

One of the key events that set the stage for the new direction of Alberta social studies was a social studies conference held in Alberta in 1967. In speaking about this conference, Dr. E. A. Torgunrud, former Director of Curriculum, stated:

> The provincial conference in 1967 was the conference from which the current approach used in social studies had its origins. (Torgunrud, personal interview, February 2, 1982)

This next section of the chapter will look at the 1967 Conference and its outcomes.

Curriculum Development in the 1960's and Early 1970's

The 1960's were a time of major curriculum development. The events of the sixties would set new curriculum directions in Alberta. Curriculum was no longer revised or developed along traditional

frameworks that had been established previously, but instead embarked in new directions of curriculum reform (Aoki and Werner in Downey, 1975, p. 66). In the aftermath of the Sputnik era, major changes were brought to the curricula of science and mathematics (Korteweg, 1972, p. 109). And, in this atmosphere of change, the groundwork was set to allow for major revisions in the social studies curriculum. Aoki, in discussing curriculum development in the sixties, stated:

> I think the whole atmosphere of curriculum development in the sixties, particular across the border, where they were pouring millions of dollars into curriculum development had an exhiliarating effect. A somewhat similar development as the Social Studies 30 program had by 1967 developed in B.C. and Manitoba. The initial impetus for a problem oriented social studies program had already picked up momentum. (Aoki as quoted in Korteweg, 1972, p. 109)

This momentum was reflected in events in Alberta that led to major changes in the Alberta social studies curriculum. One of those events was the 1967 Conference.

The Planning Stage

Morrison L. Watts, Director of Curriculum with the Department of Education, and J. S. T. Hrabi, who would succeed Watts as Director of Curriculum, allocated funds from the Department of Education to fund the conference proceedings. S. N. Odynak, as chairman of the Senior High School Social Studies Sub Committee, was approached by Watts to organize the conference, to chair it, to budget for it, and to set up a planning committee. Odynak established a planning committee for the conference consisting of the chairmen of the three social studies subcommittees, T. Aoki, and K. Bride of the ATA. Byron Massialas acted as an outside resource person (Korteweg, 1972, pp. 95-96).

Conference Participants

There were twenty participants at the conference including Massialas, educational administrators, department heads, social studies coordinators and other individuals representing the Department of Education, the University of Alberta, and the University of Calgary. Members of the lay public did not participate in the conference. The conference took place over a period of two weeks in which addresses and papers were presented by the conference participants which proposed a new direction for Alberta social studies (Korteweg, 1972, pp. 96, 98-105).

Outcomes of the Conference

A striking feature of the conference was the commonality of views held by the participants (Korteweg, 1972, p. 98; Chamberlin, personal interview, December 4, 1981). The observations and recommendations of the conference reflected these shared views. Some of the major observations and recommendations were:

1. Values should not be detailed by society nor by individuals but arise out of, or be shaped by, the utilization of the inquiry process in teaching problems and concepts. The consensus of the conference was that a major focus of the social studies is the development of a citizen who makes value decisions on rational grounds.

2. Concepts and generalizations should develop from, or be based upon, issues which are current, meaningful, controversial and of immediate concern to the pupils and to society.

3. There was general support for an interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary approach to teaching the social studies. The superiority of the inquiry approach [over that of rote memorization and the mastery of the facts] was reiterated and there appeared to be agreement that in the teaching of social studies, substance cannot be separated from process.

4. We support a problems oriented curriculum from Grade I-XII with emphasis on inquiry into social issues.

5. No content was to be specified as mandatory.

6. No textbook was to be commissioned or prescribed for any grade.

7. The role of external examinations was to be minimized and Grade IX departmental examinations should be abolished.

8. Future curriculum developments should avoid fragmented, uncoordinated efforts by separate committees.

9. The Department of Education should act at the earliest possible moment to set up the necessary machinery and make the required budgetary provision for the implementation of the recommendations approved by this conference. (From "Observations and Recommendations Regarding the Conference and the Social Studies," in S. N. Odynak (ed.), Alberta Conference on the Social Studies Curriculum for Grades I-XII, Department of Education, Province of Alberta, 1967, pp. 226-234, as quoted in Korteweg, 1972, pp. 105-107)

Laurens Korteweg (1972) in his thesis, A Decade of Social Studies Curriculum Development in Alberta, called the conference "the event of the year" (p. 108) and cited it as "evidence of a willingness to explore and innovate" (p. 107). As a result of this conference, a number of significant changes were made to the Alberta Social Studies curriculum. Many of the central aspects of the previous social studies curriculum were discarded and a new curriculum was devised for Alberta Social Studies resulting in the 1971 program contained in the following curricular documents: Responding to Change at the secondary level and Experiences in Decision Making at the elementary level. Key changes contained in the new 1971 curriculum were:

1. Social studies ought to include much more than the traditional disciplines of history and geography and, indeed, ought to expose the student to the major conceptual frames and modes of thought of all the social sciences.

2. Rote memory and the simple mastery of facts ought to give way to more inquiry-oriented experiences.

3. The processes of valuing ought to be a central aspect of all learning experiences in the social domain.

4. Textbooks and other kinds of obsolescing materials ought to give way to more teacher-prepared learning materials to keep the contemporary aspects of the subject alive and up-to-date.

5. Students and parents ought to have a good deal to say about the selection of materials. (Downey, 1975, p. 32)

The new curriculum moved Alberta social studies in new directions and Alberta was cited as a leader in curriculum change. Korteweg (1972) in his thesis quotes Dr. T. G. Finn, Retired Dean, Faculty of Education, University of Calgary, who stated that Alberta had ". . . made startling innovations and explored new ideas on a large scale that had very limited experimentation elsewhere" (p. 102). Bill Badger, former supervisor of social studies for the Edmonton Public School board, stated: "1971 was a revolution" (personal interview, October 21, 1981).

The Societal Context

This spirit of experimentation and innovation in social studies was linked to the climate of the times. Korteweg (1972) stated:

> The general climate of optimism, so prevalent during Centennial Year, and the stable financial and political environment may also have contributed to the creation of a climate that was favourable to this particular event in the history of social studies curriculum development in Alberta. (p. 111)

Other individuals, in reflecting on that period, held similar views. Dr. C. D. Ledgerwood, former Associate Director of Curriculum for the Social Studies, stated:

> Curriculum reflects the ethos of the society in which it's being developed. Ethos stems from economic conditions of that society. If you look at the 1971 curriculum, there was an economic buoyancy that gave rise to a permissiveness and willingness to provide a freedom to learn. (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981)

Marilyn Shortt, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, stated that:

> The 1971 curriculum was reflective of a more open, creative experimental time when the economy was going well. (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981)

The trend toward experimentation and choice that was reflected in the 1971 curriculum was also identified by Dr. C. Chamberlin, professor at the University of Alberta. He stated:

> There was a feeling abroad in the land in 1971—the "greening" of America," the thrust toward greater individual choice, and emphasis on developing each individual's potential. Curriculum was a cafeteria that suited your taste. It could be left very open. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981)

With the introduction of the new 1971 program, Responding to Change and Experiences in Decision Making, Alberta social studies classrooms were presented with a very different curriculum as compared to what had come before—a new curriculum that stressed interdisciplinary studies, inquiry, teacher autonomy, and flexibility. During the next few years, teachers would attempt to implement this new curriculum with its new orientations in their social studies classrooms. This new curriculum would be formally evaluated by the Department of Education during the years 1974 and 1975 and the report of the evaluation would mark a turning point in subsequent curriculum development in social studies.

The Downey Report

In August, 1975, a major report was released that evaluated the 1971 social studies program in Alberta. The name of the report was The Social Studies in Alberta—1975: A Report of an Assessment, or more commonly referred to as The Downey Report. The Downey Report had a decisive influence on the development of the Alberta Social Studies. It provided a formal and authoritative evaluation of the program as well as providing a mandate to proceed with changes to the 1971 curriculum.

This section will examine the central features of The Downey Report. The first part will outline the mandate under which the evaluation took place; the second part pertains to the findings of the report; and the third part describes the recommendations of the Downey assessment. A fourth part will look at the general influence that The Downey Report brought to bear on social studies curriculum development.

The Mandate of The Downey Report

In January, 1974, L. W. Downey and his associates submitted a report to the Department of Education titled Social Studies in Alberta: Prospects for Evaluation. This report included a report of a preliminary study and a plan to conduct a subsequent in-depth evaluation of the 1971 Alberta Social Studies program. This plan as well as guidelines provided by the Department of Education set the frame of reference for the evaluation (Downey, 1975, p. i).

The mandate for the evaluation established by the Department of Education involved an examination of five different areas. These were:

1. descriptive - to describe the nature of operating programs.

2. comparative - to verify the congruence or lack thereof between the intended curriculum and the real.

3. normative - to determine the appropriateness of the program in terms of the Goals of Basic Education.

4. exploratory - to determine the factors related to successes and failures.

5. interpretive - to generate recommendations as to how the program might achieve optimal success. (Downey, 1975, p. i)

The work of planning and coordinating the evaluation was undertaken by a group of people who became known as the Directorate. The members of the Directorate were: T. Aoki, H. Baker, L. Downey and D. Massey. This group assumed final responsibility for the Summary Report and its recommendations. As well, numerous other individuals were involved with other aspects of the evaluation including essay reviews, statistical and document analyses, site visits, distribution of questionnaires, and so on (Downey, 1975, pp. ii-iv).

In order to fulfill the mandate of the evaluation, five major activities were undertaken. These were:

1. a review of the background of the new program and the development of a conceptual system to guide us in its assessment.

2. critiques of the Master Plan of the new program - the publications of the Department of Education which set forth the philosophy, the orientation, the content and the strategies of the new program.

3. a questionnaire survey of teachers, students, and parents - to provide attitudinal and descriptive information.

4. an analysis of a sample of locally-developed programs.

5. a series of interviews, observations and site visits. (Downey, 1975, p. 1)

Findings of the Downey Report

The Downey Report divided its findings into three broad categories: (1) Conclusions Regarding the Master Plan, (2) Conclusions Regarding Program Development and (3) Conclusions Regarding the School/Classroom Situation. The nature of the conclusions was mixed. Some conclusions were a favourable assessment of the 1971 program while others were negative in their assessment of that program. The following section will examine the major findings of the evaluation.

Conclusions Regarding the Master Plan

This next section will examine the conclusions that were given in The Downey Report regarding the question of the Master Plan.

Appropriateness of Orientation and Fidelity with the Goals of Education. The Downey Report praised the orientation of the Master Plan of the 1971 program. It quoted Chamberlin stating that the plan was:

> . . . most defensible for its thrust toward involving students in the examination not only of 'what is' but also of 'what ought to be'; for insisting that students confront real problems that involve conflicting values; and for asking that processes and content be selected to develop an understanding of significant social problems. (Chamberlin as quoted in Downey, 1975, p. 5)

As well, the Downey Assessment gave top marks to the Master Plan for its consistency in terms of official Department of Education documents, Statement of the Purposes of Elementary Education and The Goals of Basic Education and for its adherence to the orientation recommended in A Choice of Futures: Report of the Commission on Educational Planning (Downey, 1975, p. 4).

Level of Internal Consistency. The 1971 Master Plan was criticized for its lack of internal consistency. The Downey Report cited a number of instances where this was the case. For example, the report noted that the knowledge section emphasized the importance of interdisciplinary studies, and yet advocated unidisciplinary studies (Downey, 1975, p. 5).

Teacher Awareness and Familiarity. The report concluded that teachers did not have adequate awareness or familiarity with the Master Plan in order to effectively implement the 1971 curriculum. It was noted that although ninety percent of the respondents to the questionnaires that were administered claimed to be familiar with the curriculum guides, it was evident in the follow-up interviews that teachers varied widely in their knowledge of the curricular documents. As well, the report indicated many teachers were not aware of the subtle intents of the program (Downey, 1975, p. 6).

Acceptability of the Master Plan. The report found that there was "reasonable" support for the orientation of the program among teachers, parents, and students although thirty-two percent of the teacher respondents did reject the 1971 program because of its "emphasis on values" (Downey, 1975, p. 6). Elsewhere the report concluded that ". . . there has not been a high degree of consensus on the basic philosophy, the orientations, or the objectives of the new program" (Downey, 1975, p. 22).

Teacher Perception of Utility. Teachers appeared to have a wide range of opinions in terms of the usefulness of the Master Plan.

Although most teachers were appreciative of the content of the handbooks, they appeared to be neither strongly negative or strongly enthusiastic regarding their pedagogical value, their usefulness, their ease of understanding, their organization, and their clarity (Downey, 1975, p. 7).

Summary of Conclusions Regarding the Master Plan. This section of conclusions, although supporting the Master Plan as being ". . . highly commendable and highly acceptable in its major orientations . . ." (Downey, 1975, p. 7), was very critical of the actual use made of the Master Plan. The conclusion of The Downey Report was very blunt. It stated:

> We conclude that the Master Plan is still, five years after its creation, far more an idea in the minds of its creators than it is a guide to Social Studies education in the classroom of the Province. (Downey, 1975, p. 7)

Conclusions Regarding Program Development

The next section will examine the conclusions that were given in The Downey Report regarding the question of program development.

Fidelity with the Master Plan. In teacher-developed programs where value issues were developed, the report found a high level of fidelity with the value concepts contained in the Master Plan documents. In the area of D.A.P. orientation (designative, appraisive, and prescriptive) of the 1971 program, where the three components were to share a balanced attention, the report found that major emphasis was placed on the designative, minor emphasis on the appraisive and no emphasis on the prescriptive. The designative mode placed an

emphasis on "what is, what was, or what will be," and the major stress was placed on the traditional academic disciplines. The appraisive mode placed an emphasis on "what should be done" and the major stress was on issues or problems having interdisciplinary bases. The prescriptive mode placed an emphasis on "what should be" and the major stress was on the formulation of appropriate courses of personal action. The report found a high degree of fidelity of skills incorporated into teacher developed programs as compared with the Master Plan, although the skills emphasized in the teacher developed programs were usually lower level ones, such as recall and map-reading, and excluded valuing skills such as comparison, dialogue, compromise and so on (Downey, 1975, pp. 8-9).

Time and Resources. While the Master Plan encouraged the extensive involvement of teachers, students, and the community in the process of curriculum development, little time and few resources were allocated to teachers to accomplish this involvement. The problem of lack of time and resources was particularly felt by elementary teachers who were curriculum generalists rather than curriculum specialists (Downey, 1975, p. 9).

Level of Support. The report found that teachers felt they received inadequate encouragement and assistance in terms of program development. The majority viewed their fellow teachers as providing the most assistance. Forty-four percent considered supervisors and consultants as being helpful, and twenty-nine percent considered their teacher associations as being helpful (Downey, 1975, pp. 9-10).

Formative Evaluation. Because teachers were unaware of how to carry out this type of evaluation, they had relied on traditional evaluation or no evaluation at all. According to The Downey Report, teachers were not aware of what criteria or norms should be used (Downey, 1975, p. 10).

Regional Differences. The report reported a large discrepancy in terms of program implementation from region to region. Most notable was the discrepancy between urban and rural. While the urban areas had adequate materials for program development and adequate consultative and support services, the rural areas were lacking in these areas (Downey, 1975, p. 10).

Canadian Content. The report found that the majority of teachers, parents, and students surveyed wanted an increase in Canadian content in Alberta social studies. However, the report noted that most parents, students, and teachers ". . . would deplore an emphasis on 'Canadiana' which would become chauvinistic or nationalistic" (Downey, 1975, p. 11).

Summary of Conclusions Regarding Program Development. This section of conclusions reported that there had been ". . . considerable slippage in the translation of the Master Plan into programs" (Downey, 1975, p. 11) and that the main reasons for this "slippage" were:

1. lack of time for program development
2. lack of resources
3. lack of consultative services
4. lack of teacher competence in program development.
   (Downey, 1975, p. 11)

Conclusions Regarding the School/ Classroom Situation

This next section examines the conclusions that were given in The Downey Report regarding the question of the School/Classroom Situation.

Fidelity of the Classroom Situation with the Master Plan. The report concluded that the program was not fully operative in any Alberta classrooms. The report stated:

> . . . the new program is operative at some minimal level of fidelity with the Master Plan in virtually all schools and classrooms; . . . it is operative at about 50% level of fidelity in the typical classroom; and . . . it is operative at a considerably higher but by no means perfect, level of fidelity in but a few classrooms. (Downey, 1975, pp. 14-15)

Learner Outcomes. The report concluded that students saw little of the 1971 program's major orientations, strategies and intended outcomes in the programs they were experiencing in Alberta social studies classrooms (Downey, 1975, pp. 16-17).

Encouragements and Constraints. One of the constraints which served to hamper the implementation of the program was the tendency on the part of teachers to dichotomize inquiry on the one hand and knowledge and skills on the other. The report stated:

> Too many tend to incline too far in one direction or the other—toward free and open student inquiry, without the appropriate knowledge and skills or toward the mastery of facts, without experience in inquiry, in valuing, or in critical analysis and involvement. (Downey, 1975, pp. 17-18)

As well, resources were either inappropriate or unavailable. This lack of resources had frustrated teachers and caused the program to flounder (Downey, 1975, p. 18). Coupled with this was the lack of

time provided for teachers to engage in program development (Downey, 1975, p. 19).

The lack of support and encouragement provided for teachers in their attempts to implement the 1971 program caused many teachers to revert to the teaching of the traditional social studies that had existed before (Downey, 1975, pp. 18-19). The report also found that many teachers were unprepared to handle the "new" inquiry methods embodied in the 1971 program (Downey, 1975, p. 19). As well, lack of community knowledge and involvement were cited as contributing to the lack of implementation (Downey, 1975, p. 20).

Summary of Conclusions Regarding the School/Classroom Situation. This section of conclusions reported that the 1971 program of studies was not being effectively implemented in Alberta social studies classrooms. The report concluded that major reasons for this were the lack of adequate resources and preparation time, lack of inservice for teachers, lack of community involvement and commitment, and the inadequate preparation of teachers to meet the challenges of the inquiry method of the 1971 program.

Conclusions Regarding the Findings of the Downey Report

Clearly, the 1971 program received a "mixed report card." While praising the Master Plan for its basic orientation, it strongly criticized the lack of implementation of the program in Alberta social studies classrooms. Despite this strong criticism, the report stressed its support for the aims of the 1971 program. The report stated:

> These judgements may appear harsh. They may be interpreted by some readers as good and sufficient reason . . . to call for a retreat from the new program. We would disagree. The history of innovation is complete with "mixed report cards"—uneven patterns of acceptance, uneven patterns of implementation, and uneven patterns of effectiveness.
>
> Yet we are convinced after a five-year trial period, the program, as it operates in some situations, has demonstrated that it has an exciting potential. (Downey, 1975, p. 23)

Recommendations of the Downey Report

Based on its support for the orientations of the 1971 program, The Downey Report then sought to put forward recommendations in order to provide ideas of how the "exciting potential" of the 1971 program could be realized. The next section will examine the major recommendations of The Downey Report.

Recommendations re the Master Plan

This part of the report contained three major recommendations:

a. The 1971 Social Studies program should be continued with certain refinements.

b. The major documents should be revised by the Department of Education in the following manner:

   i. clarify and expand on the basic orientations of the program including student and/or community input.

   ii. distribute Canadian content more evenly across the grades.

   iii. re-write the curriculum guides in order to make them comprehensible to all teachers.

c. The revision and reassessment of the Master Plan should involve all stakeholder groups and an ad hoc Task Force should be established to coordinate this work. (Downey, 1975, pp. 23-24)

Recommendations re Program Development

The Downey assessment recommended that new instruments or agencies be created to promote and refine the program (Downey, 1975, p. 25).

Recommendations re the School/ Classroom Situation

The concern was expressed that teachers, in reacting to the 1971 program, either remained unchanged and followed the traditional pattern of acting as directors of learning, transmitters of knowledge, and the evaluators of student progress, or completely abdicated their responsibility as teacher in the classroom. To counter these two positions, The Downey Report recommended that "teachers and consultants be encouraged to strive to achieve a broader repertoire and a better balance of both teacher and student activities in the classroom" (Downey, 1975, p. 25).

Miscellaneous Recommendations

In this section of The Downey Report, four major recommendations were given.

Canadian Content. The first recommendation concerned Canadian content. Here the report recommended caution in increasing the amount of Canadian content and warned that ". . . the desire for more Canadian content not be allowed to become the excuse for subverting some of the other important goals of the program" (Downey, 1975, p. 27).

Student Involvement. The report advocated the familiarization and involvement of students in all aspects of the social studies program such as clarifying goals, planning activities and assessing progress (Downey, 1975, p. 27).

Community Involvement. It was recommended that the community be informed about the social studies program and that they be involved in planning and implementing the program (Downey, 1975, p. 28).

Teacher Training. The report expressed concern that teachers bore a large responsibility for the non-implementation of the program either because they rejected the new orientation of the social studies program or because they did not understand how to effectively implement the new program. To overcome this situation, The Downey Report recommended that:

i. those teachers involved in teaching social studies should be carefully selected by school boards.

ii. in-service education be instituted to help practicing teachers implement the program.

iii. special consultative services be provided for non-specialists in social studies—in particular, elementary teachers. (Downey, 1975, pp. 28-29)

Influence of Downey

The Downey Report reported that there were immense problems in effectively implementing the 1971 program in Alberta social studies classrooms. To the individuals and groups involved in social studies in Alberta, these conclusions did not come as much of a surprise. The 1971 social studies program had been receiving considerable criticism since its release and The Downey Report substantiated the

reported problems that were being faced in implementing the program.

Frank Horvath, former consultant with the Calgary Public School Board, commented:

> I think that Downey put down on paper what everybody else feared. That was that the program was not particularly successful in terms of implementation. I don't think he told us much that we didn't suspect already. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

The criticism being directed at the 1971 social studies curriculum made an impact. In fact, the first result of this criticism was the decision to undertake an evaluation or assessment of the 1971 program. Torgunrud stated:

> Because we were getting the most flak on the new social studies, we said, "Let's make social studies our vehicle to develop a prototype to evaluate all program changes." (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982)

Other individuals also commented on the effect that criticisms of the 1971 program had in bringing about a formal assessment mandated by the Department of Education. Shortt stated:

> The Downey Report came out because there were grumblings about the program and they felt they should assess it. There were grumblings from parents, teachers and school boards. (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981)

And Shirley Stiles, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, commented:

> There was negative reaction [to the 1971 program] right from the beginning from teachers, the public, and from government. There was concern and confusion over the whole question of values, the whole different approach—inquiry, and the inter-disciplinary approach. All this influenced the government and the result was the Downey Report. (Personal Interview, November 25, 1981)

Chamberlin cited an Edmonton area study on the lack of implementation of the 1971 program as being a possible influence in bringing

about the province-wide Downey assessment as well as the influence of the province-wide criticism of the program that was being received by the Department of Education. Chamberlin in responding to the question, "Why did the Downey assessment occur?" stated:

> I can speculate. Frank Crowther, a graduate student at the University of Alberta, got interested in problems teachers were having in implementing the curriculum and did an Edmonton area study. . . . His findings were critical of the load that had been laid on teachers and suggested that curriculum existed on paper and not in children's experiences. It would be that way until substantial changes were made. He was hired by Alberta Education (1973, 1974) and one of the things he got involved in was trying to move towards an evaluation beyond the Edmonton area.
>
> I also know that people in Alberta Education like Ledgerwood were getting letters that said, "That's good, but it won't work—I don't have the time or resources." He was doing workshops all over the province and faced teachers on a daily basis trying to get teachers to use the program and it was increasingly clear that teachers were not using the program. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981).

The Downey Report provided a focus for the discontent that existed with the 1971 program. Stiles commented: "The Downey Report only became a focal point for this negative reaction. If it hadn't been the Downey Report, it would have been something else" (Personal Interview, November 25, 1981).

With the release of The Downey Report in August, 1975, the stage was set for the changes that would occur in Alberta social studies. The end result of the changes between 1975 and 1978 was the release of a new social studies curricular document in December, 1978, called 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition.

The Downey Report was cited as a key factor in re-evaluating the 1971 social studies program and in initiating some of the changes

that would subsequently occur in that program (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). The study was, in fact, initiated in order to influence the future of social studies development in Alberta (Correspondence, Sherk to Horvath, July 15, 1977).

Ledgerwood discussed the central role of The Downey Report in this process. He stated: "Downey was a key factor in causing a re-looking at the curriculum" (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

Badger, in discussing The Downey Report, commented that:

> It legitimized the changes and the necessity for change. It made it easier to accept the need for change. It didn't whitewash the program and it had a lot of credibility with teachers. It vindicated the critics of the program on the outside, and to the Department's credit, they started responding immediately. . . . (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981)

Chamberlin also saw The Downey Report as providing a mandate for change.

> The audience [for the Downey Report] was Alberta Education. They took it as a mandate to do something. People like Ledgerwood and Crowther sat down with it and tried to figure out things that could be done. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981)

Frank Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, discussed The Downey Report as being the starting point for the curriculum development process that would see as its culmination the publication of the new social studies curriculum guide, 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition. He stated: "This whole process . . . started with the Downey Report in 1975" (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981).

The Downey Report initiated the development of the 1978 social studies curriculum in Alberta and it provided the mandate to change

the existing 1971 program. In subsequent sections of this chapter, the influence that The Downey Report brought to bear on specific curriculum decisions regarding the social studies will be discussed.

Structual and Personnel Changes in the Department of Education

In 1975, the same year that The Downey Report was released, major changes were made to the curriculum development structures that existed in the Department of Education. Prior to that in the period 1972-1975, Curriculum Policy Committees were established. These Policy Committees operated in each subject area in the elementary and secondary programs and occasionally in the interdisciplinary areas. From time to time, ad hoc committees were established to complete certain tasks on a short term basis (Paradis et al., no date, p. 57). The responsibilities of these committees focused on curriculum and instruction and decision-making; they coordinated the work of other committees, reviewed proposals for curriculum change and initiated curriculum proposals for the Minister's consideration (Paradis et al., no date, pp. 56-57).

In 1975, this structure was modified and the following bodies were established:

1. The Curriculum Policies Board
2. The Subject Coordinating Committees
3. The Ad Hoc Committees.

This section will discuss the basic functions served by each of these bodies.

Curriculum Policies Board

The Minister of Education, Julian Koziak, announced in December, 1975, that a Curriculum Policies Board would be established to replace the existing Elementary and Secondary Curriculum Boards. The stated rationale for the establishment of the new Curriculum Policies Board was to ". . . provide more public participation in basic curriculum policy" (Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, no date, p. 1) and to ". . . encourage a 1-12 perspective where such was deemed desirable for purposes of clearer articulation from grade to grade" (Curriculum Development for Alberta Education, 1977). According to the document, Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, prepared by the Department of Education, the mandate of the Curriculum Policies Board was to formulate and recommend policies to the Minister of Education for Grades 1-12 in the following areas.

a. integration of content and skills within and among courses

b. provision of a range of instructional methods to allow for individual differences in development

c. importance of each subject area in relation to the total program

d. balance between mandatory and elective content

e. adequacy and cost of instructional materials

f. adaptation and use of new systems and technologies such as metric measurement, calculators and computers

g. treatment of controversial issues such as evolution and special creation

h. provision for evaluation of both student achievement and program adequacy.

i. communicability of program content to students, teachers and parents. (Alberta Education, Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, no date, p. 4)

The Curriculum Policies Board was a sixteen member board of which half were professional educators. The professional educators were the following:

a. a representative from the Department of Education nominated by the Minister of Education

b. a representative from the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA) nominated by the ATA

c. a representative from the Conference of Alberta School Superintendents nominated by the conference

d. a representative from the post-secondary institutions selected by the Minister of Education from a list of nominations received

e. three practicing teachers selected by the Minister of Education from a list of nominations received. (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976)

The other half of the membership of the Curriculum Policies Board were as follows:

a. a representative of the Alberta School Trustees' Association (ASTA) nominated by the ASTA

b. a representative of the Legislative Assembly appointed by the Minister of Education

c. six citizens at large selected by the Minister of Education from a list of nominations received. (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976)

The Director of Curriculum was the Chairman of the Curriculum Policies Board (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976). The final authority to change the mandate of the Curriculum Policies Board and to approve the appointments of individuals to the Curriculum Policies Board rested with the Minister of Education (CPB Minutes, January 20, 21, 1977).

The membership of the Curriculum Policies Board, during the period of this study, was as follows:

Public Representatives

Mr. R. W. Chapman, Edmonton - Businessman

Mrs. D. Christie, Trochu - Homemaker

Mr. J. Curran, Calgary - Lawyer

Mrs. L. Milner, Calgary - Homemaker

Mr. G. Schuler, Edmonton - Agriculturalist

Rev. R. J. Smith, Edmonton - Clergyman

Electoral Representatives

Mrs. F. Craigie, Red Deer - Trustee

Mr. R. Tesolin, Lac La Biche - Member of the Legislative Assembly

Educational Representatives

Dr. G. Berry, Edmonton - University Professor

Mrs. D. Brilz, Medicine Hat - Junior High Teacher

Dr. J. Hrabi, Edmonton - Associate Deputy Minister

Mrs. S. Van Eaton, Didsbury - Elementary School Teacher

Mr. K. Wagner, Grande Prairie- Deputy Superintendent

Mr. H. Weissenborn, Sherwood Park - High School Teacher

Mr. J. Woloschuk, Calgary - School Administrator: replaced by:

Mr. H. C. Jonson, Ponoka - School Administrator: August, 1977

Dr. E. A. Torgunrud, who as Director of Curriculum, was appointed to serve as Chairman with voting rights.

(Alberta Education, Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, no date, pp. 1-2)

Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee

Acting underneath the Curriculum Policies Board were the subject area coordinating committees. These subject area committees worked on and developed curricula and then presented their work to the Curriculum Policies Board for approval (Paradis et al., no date, p. 57).

The coordinating committee that is the object of this study is the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee (SSCCC). The role of the SSCCC was to ". . . recommend to the Curriculum Policies Board, policies relating to the Alberta Social Studies curriculum in Grades I-XII as well as the social science modules in the senior high school" (Alberta Education, Function of SSCCC, 1976).

The membership of the SSCCC was chosen in the following manner. At least half of the membership of the SSCCC had to be nominated by the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA). The ATA would submit a list of names to the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies who would then choose members for the SSCCC from this list. The rest of the slots that were to be filled in the SSCCC would be automatic, e.g., representatives from the Faculty of Education and central offices of the larger schools systems. (In these positions, a loosely structured rotation occurred.) The choice of which individuals would comprise the membership of the SSCCC was the Associate Director's, operating within the conventional mode of selection, i.e., half of the membership would be chosen from ATA nominations, etc. The Associate Director of Curriculum was an ex-officio member of the SSCCC (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

In January, 1976, the newly formed SSCCC began its work of revising the 1971 social studies curriculum. The original membership of the SSCCC was:

a. Frank Crowther - Chairman of the SSCCC from January, 1976 to January, 1978

b. Joan Mueller

c. Lola Major

d. Don Massey

e. Marilyn Shortt

f. Bill Dever

g. Yvette Mahe

h. Lorne Mullen

i. Jack Langford

j. Bryan Connors

k. Doug Ledgerwood - Associate Director of Curriculum - ex-officio member of the SSCCC

(Minutes of the SSCCC, January 30, 1976).

Changes to the Membership of the SSCCC

a. Yvette Mahe - resigns from the SSCCC, January, 1976

b. Don Massey - resigns from the SSCCC, Summer, 1976

c. Max Van Manen - appointed September, 1976 to replace Don Massey as the representative from the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta

d. Lola Major - resigns June, 1977

e. Debbie Morgan - appointed to the SSCCC, Fall, 1977

f. Marilyn Shortt - resigns from the SSCCC, June, 1977

g. Tony Burley - appointed to the SSCCC, Fall, 1977

h. Doug Ledgerwood - resigns as Associate Director of Curriculum (Social Studies), January 30, 1978

i. Frank Crowther - appointed Associate Director of Curriculum (Social Studies), January 30, 1978

j. Bob Carter - appointed Chairman of the SSCCC, February, 1978.

Ad Hoc Committees

The ad hoc committees functioned under the direction of the Coordinating Committees and had responsibility for a specific area or topic (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976).

Associate Director of Curriculum

One of the main responsibilities of the Associate Director of Curriculum was to oversee and direct the curriculum development work in his/her subject area. In September, 1975, Ledgerwood was appointed Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies. He replaced Dr. H. G. Sherk who took a position with the Evaluation Branch of the Department of Education. Ledgerwood served in this position as Associate Director of Curriculum until January 30, 1978, and was directly involved in the curriculum development process that occurred during this period. With Ledgerwood's departure from the Department of Education in February, 1978, Crowther assumed the position of Associate Director of Curriculum.

See Appendix K for a chart showing the structural relationship among the various sections of the curriculum development structure of the Alberta Department of Education.

Summary

This section of Chapter 4 examined some of the major antecedents to the changes that occurred in social studies curriculum in Alberta. Three major events were examined: These were the 1967 Conference, the release of The Downey Report, and the changes in personnel and in the curriculum development structures of the Alberta Department of Education. The findings are summarized in the following paragraphs.

The 1967 Conference

The conference was organized by the Alberta Department of Education and was attended by twenty participants including Massialas, educational administrators, department heads, social studies coordinators, and representatives from the Department of Education, the University of Alberta, and the University of Calgary. The participants generally held common views regarding the direction that Alberta social studies should take.

As a result of the conference, key changes were made to the Alberta social studies curriculum which included a reliance on all the social sciences, an inquiry oriented approach, an emphasis on valuing, the use of teacher prepared materials, and the involvement of students and parents in the program. The result was the 1971 social studies curriculum, Responding to Change.

The conference took place in an atmosphere of curriculum change and innovation. This atmosphere was linked to the societal context in which it occurred which tended to be a more open and experimental time.

The Downey Report

In 1974, L. W. Downey and his associates had been commissioned by the Alberta Department of Education to undertake a formal evaluation of the 1971 social studies curriculum. The result of this evaluation was the release of The Downey Report in August, 1975.

The Downey Report supported the major orientations of the 1971 program but criticized its lack of implementation. It cited four reasons for the lack of implementation of the 1971 curriculum. These reasons were lack of time for program development, lack of resources, lack of consultative services, and lack of teacher competence in program development. The report went on to make a number of recommendations in order that the "exciting potential" of the 1971 program could be realized.

The Downey Report provided the mandate to proceed with changes to the 1971 curriculum. The release of the report served as a starting point for the social studies curriculum changes and revisions.

Structural and Personnel Changes in the Department of Education

In 1975, major changes were made to the curriculum development structures that existed in the Alberta Department of Education. Three curriculum bodies were established. These were the Curriculum Policies Board, the Subject Coordinating Committees, and the Ad Hoc Committees.

In 1975, Dr. C. D. Ledgerwood was appointed Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies replacing Dr. H. G. Sherk. Ledgerwood would hold this position until February, 1978 when Mr. Frank Crowther replaced him.

In January, 1976, the newly formed Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee began the work of revising the 1971 social studies program. Frank Crowther was chairman of the SSCCC.

This section of Chapter 4 examined three major events that occurred as antecedents to the changes and revisions of the 1971 social studies program, and which had an influence on the subsequent revisions and changes that resulted. The next section of Chapter 4 examines the forces that sought to influence the revisions to the Alberta social studies program, and the actual impact those forces had on the curriculum development process. As well, this section of Chapter 4 examines the curriculum development process and the outcomes of that process.

Increased Canadian Studies in Alberta Social Studies

One of the major revisions to the 1971 social studies program was the increase in the amount of Canadian studies. This section of Chapter 4 examines the influences of various forces on this issue.

The Societal Context

In 1967, Canada celebrated its Centennial Year. It was a year of heightened awareness of Canada and its culture for the people of Canada. In the aftermath of these Centennial celebrations, Canada witnessed a new rise in Canadian nationalism. D. W. Carr (1971), in writing of this growth in Canadian nationalism, states:

> . . . in the preparations and celebrations of Canada's 1967 Centennial, and in the Man and His World exposition in Montreal, Canadians again showed their awareness, not only of the great and distinctive cultural heritage they had now

> acquired but of their deep and abiding esteem for those ideals and values that could now be designated as uniquely Canadian. . . . The despair of the early 1960's rapidly changed to an angry dissatisfaction with governments and individuals who failed, by not protecting them [from the American influence], to cherish these basic elements of Canada's nationhood. With this angry disaffection, there became apparent also a new determination to resist foreign intrusion and to recover some of the ground that had already been lost. . . . The growth of this new national spirit has been swift, especially since 1967. (pp. 86-87)

The rising tide of Canadian nationalism was reflected across Canada. Bryan Connors, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, stated: "After 1967, the concept of Canadian identity did become the vogue" (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981). Public opinion polls provided evidence of increased concerns about foreign domination of Canada. Walter Gordon, a leading Canadian nationalist, was besieged by calls from all parts of Canada in 1969 and 1970 to speak on the national question. In Alberta, he participated in a teach-in at the University of Alberta which attracted a large and passionate audience in favour of Canadian autonomy and against foreign influence. The growth of Canadian nationalism was reflected in the political sphere as well. In 1969, the New Democratic Party moved toward a more nationalist position under pressure from the Waffle Group in its ranks. The Liberal government also responded to increased public interest in this subject by undertaking a study of foreign ownership and control under the direction of the Liberal Minister, Herb Gray. The report of the study (The Gray Report) gave unanimous endorsement to a range of nationalist measures including legislation aimed at restoring predominant Canadian control in the economy. In 1970, a number of prominent Canadians like Peter C.

Newman, Walter Gordon, Jack McClelland, Mel Hurtig and others created the Committee for an Independent Canada in order to focus attention on the national question and to maintain pressure on the Liberal Cabinet to act on the recommendations of the Gray Report. The Committee for an Independent Canada grew rapidly and had wide support (Smith, 1973, pp. 350-356). By 1973, the issue of Canadian nationalism had become a national movement. Smith (1973) writes that, by 1973, one

> . . . could see the beginnings of a popular national movement—a political movement—which revealed itself in all the federal parties, in the universities and the periodical press, in royal commissions, and government enquiries, in the Committee for an Independent Canada, in the trade unions, in the policies of provincial governments in Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia, and very tentatively in a Liberal government in Ottawa. (pp. 359-360)

This rise in the national feelings of Canadians was also reflected in the field of Canadian education. Dr. Ralph Sabey, consultant with the Department of Education, put it this way:

> It was a period of Canadian nationalism and education was caught into it. People, in looking at school resources, were saying that Canadian kids will all grow up to be little Americans. (Personal Interview, January 7, 1982)

What Culture? What Heritage?: The Report of the National History Project

In September, 1965, the Governing Body of Trinity College School initiated a study called the National History Project. Its main emphasis was on:

> . . . civic education—that is, the influence of formal instruction in developing the feelings and attitudes of young Canadians toward their country, and the knowledge on which these attitudes are based. (The Canadian Studies Foundation, 1969, p. 13)

The National History Project was a two-year investigation into the teaching of Canadian history, social studies and civics in the elementary and secondary schools of all ten provinces. At that time, it was regarded as the most extensive and thorough study ever undertaken in this area of Canadian education. The Report of the National History Project was published in September, 1968 in cooperation with the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Canadian Studies Foundation, p. 13).

The Report of the National History Project was titled What Culture? What Heritage? and was written by A. B. Hodgetts. Hodgetts' report ". . . demonstrated a woeful ignorance about Canada on the part of both teachers and students" (Gordon, 1977, p. 329). Hodgetts described the deplorable state of affairs in the teaching of Canadian Studies:

> Item: 65 per cent of school libraries had no books on English-French relations.
>
> Item: Of the English-speaking students who wrote Hodgetts' "open-ended essay," 47 per cent thought they knew more American than Canadian history, and 71 per cent found it more enjoyable.
>
> Item: In 18 per cent of the classes visited by Hodgetts and his staff, the students were described as "actively bored," another 17 per cent as "passively bored," and 41 per cent "mechanical." (Hodgetts as quoted in Sabey, 1975, p. 5)

In summary, Hodgetts wrote:

> The majority of English-speaking high school graduates leave the Canadian studies classroom without the intellectual skills, the knowledge and the attitudes they should have to plan an effective role as citizens in present-day Canada. What they do remember has neither practical nor aesthetic value; it has not enriched their minds . . . Canadian studies do not give to most of our young people a constructive sense of belonging to a unique, identifiable civic culture. (Hodgetts as quoted in Sabey, 1975, p. 5)

The conclusion of Hodgetts' report included a recommendation

> . . . that a Canadian studies consortium be established to implement a national curriculum plan designed to make "radical changes" in the teaching of Canadian studies in our elementary and secondary schools. Included in his recommendation is the idea of regional centres as the means through which the curriculum development plan would be implemented. (Hodgetts as quoted in Sabey, 1975, p. 5)

The Canadian Studies Feasibility Project

In June, 1968, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education organized a Canadian Studies Feasibility and Planning Project whose purpose was:

> . . . to explore and evaluate ways to improve the quality of Canadian studies in the schools and universities of Canada and to select one or more projects for future development by the Institute. (Canadian Studies Foundation, p. 14)

The project examined two areas: the public response to this issue and the response of the educational community.

In September, 1968, a large volume of copies of What Culture? What Heritage? were sold or distributed to the news media and to people from all levels of the educational structures that existed in the ten provinces. The public response was overwhelming.

> Large numbers of individual letters and book reviews, comments on radio, television and in the press, articles in magazines of opinion and in educational journals and speeches in the Legislative Assembly of Ontario revealed that the educational community and the wider Canadian society generally accepted the findings documented in What Culture? What Heritage? as valid. (Canadian Studies Foundation, p. 14)

As well, the project provided an opportunity to compile a resource list of interested Canadians who might participate in future efforts to develop and improve Canadian studies, and to consult with provincial Departments of Education and school boards (Canadian Studies Foundation, pp. 15-16).

The Canadian Studies Conference

In February, 1969, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education hosted a conference attended by delegates from across Canada representing the whole range of Canadian education and interested groups outside the educational community (Canadian Studies Foundation, p. 16). The conference plus other events indicated a strong concern and willingness to develop Canadian studies on a national scale. The big event of the conference was the authorizing of

> . . . a steering committee to explore the possibility of establishing a new, independent organization designed to coordinate efforts to improve Canada Studies in all provinces on a voluntary, cooperative basis. (Canadian Studies Foundation, p. 1)

As a result of this authorization, the Canadian Studies Foundation was established.

The Canadian Studies Foundation

The Canadian Studies Foundation was founded in February, 1970. Walter Gordon became the Foundation's Chairman and A. B. Hodgetts became its Director. To further the Canadian Studies Foundation's aim of increasing and improving the teaching of Canadian studies, funding of two million dollars was provided by individuals, corporations, and private foundations over a five-year period. As well, the Foundation received another million dollars in funding from the Canada Council, the Secretary of State, schools boards, teachers' federations, universities and so on (Gordon, 1977, pp. 329-330).

The concern about the need for increased and improved Canadian studies was expressed by the National Council of Ministers of Education (a Council comprised of the Ministers of Education from the ten

provinces). The Council had been engaged in activities to develop and promote Canadian studies, and when the Canadian Studies Foundation was established, the Council gave it their support and approval especially in the area of the development of materials about Canada (Allen, 1972, p. 1). The original national office of the Council of Ministers was next door to the Canadian Studies Foundation and provided opportunity for an on-going exchange of ideas and consultation. Even though the National Council of Ministers did not have official clout because the B.N.A. Act granted jurisdiction over education to the individual provinces, the link that was established between the two organizations helped promote Canadian studies in all provinces across Canada (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). The effectiveness of the CSF was noted by Sabey. He stated:

> The Canadian Studies Foundation was effective. There was a lack of Canadian studies across Canada, but this improved in different degrees as a result of the work of the Canadian Studies Foundation. (Personal Interview, January 7, 1982)

Project Canada West

The structure of the Canadian Studies Foundation was composed of a central organization and a number of ad hoc regional project centres (Burke, 1973, p. 3). In April, 1970, a Western regional project centre was established called Project Canada West. Project Canada West was an integral part of the Canadian Studies Foundation and received a major portion of its budget from the Foundation. The aims and objectives of Project Canada West and the Canadian Studies Foundation were similar although the methods used in realizing these objectives were determined independently by each organization (Sabey,

1975, pp. 29-30). A Board of Trustees representing two colleges of education in Western Canadian universities, teachers' organizations, Departments of Education, and a research council, was established and Dr. R. Sabey was appointed Executive Director of Project Canada West (Burke, 1973, p. 5).

The work of Project Canada West received wide support. Educators from all the western provinces, working together on curriculum development projects for Project Canada West, were enthusiastic about the curriculum projects and the support they were receiving from their local school districts. Personnel from the universities of Western Canada provided assistance to the curriculum development teams. Community support from non-educators was also widespread either in terms of providing expertise and/or moral support to the projects, e.g., parents, businessmen, professionals, etc. Another source of support were the provincial Departments of Education. Project Canada West was in constant contact with the curriculum personnel in these departments and an excellent rapport was established. Sabey stated: ". . . we in Project Canada West felt that we did have the moral support from the four provincial departments of education" (Sabey, 1975, p. 35). As well, the Canadian Studies Foundation continued to provide interest, encouragement, and financial support for the activities of Project Canada West (Sabey, 1975, pp. 33-36).

The Hurtig Survey

In January and February of 1975, Mel Hurtig undertook a survey of 3,500 students in their last year of high school to determine their knowledge of Canadian history, geography and current affairs. The

survey was conducted in all ten provinces and the two territories and was distributed in ". . . villages, towns, all major cities, affluent and poor areas, farm communities and urban suburbs" (Hurtig, Edmonton Journal, March 22, 1975, p. 5). The results of the survey revealed that students had difficulty in correctly answering the question that was posed to them. A few results from that survey follow:

a. 68% of the students were unable to name the Governor General

b. 63% were unable to name any three of Canada's Prime Ministers who had held office since the end of the Second World War

c. 61% were unable to name the B.N.A. Act as Canada's constitution

d. 89% could not identify Gabriel Dumont; 69% Rene Levesque; 96% Emily Murphy; 92% Norman Bethune

e. over 60% were unable to list Canada's ten provinces in geographical order, east to west (Hurtig, Ibid.).

Hurtig laid responsibility for "this mess" on Departments of Education, curriculum committees and those who teach teachers, and gave this warning:

> I am suggesting that in a nation overwhelmed by American influence and increasingly owned by Americans, we have a very special obligation to our own children in our own schools. . . . If in the face of Kojak, Mannix, Archie Bunker, Police Story, the FBI, the Streets of San Francisco, Love American Style, Sesame Street, Emergency, Adam 12, Hogan's Heroes, etc.—we fail to teach our students Canadian history and contemporary Canadian affairs, fail to teach them the many ways in which Canada is different from our giant culture-and-values exporting neighbour to the south, how can we possibly expect our nation to survive? (Hurtig, Edmonton Journal, March 22, 1975, p. 5)

This was the message that Hurtig carried across Canada—to high school students, to conventions and gatherings of teachers, superintendents,

trustees and other educational officials, and to the lay public.

The Alberta Scene

Alberta, like most areas of Canada, was inundated with calls to improve and increase Canadian studies in its educational system. The support for increased Canadian studies was growing and, as it gathered momentum, it began to have a profound influence on curriculum development, especially in social studies. In this part of the chapter, the influence that affected the direction of curricular change will be examined.

The Influence of the Canadian Studies Foundation and Project Canada West

The publication of A. B. Hodgetts' What Culture? What Heritage? made its impact felt in Alberta. Its findings helped promote concern in Alberta about the lack of Canadian studies in the educational system and helped to set in motion a campaign to correct these perceived deficiencies (Connors, Personal Interview, October 9, 1981; Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982; Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981).

The work of the Canadian Studies Foundation perhaps had its major impact at the governmental level. The Alberta government was party to the funding of the Canadian Studies Foundation through the Council of Ministers of Education of Canada and was provided with materials developed by the Foundation (Memo from Sherk, Associate Director of Curriculum to all members of Directors Council and Coordinators of the regional offices, 1975).

Project Canada West launched a campaign to make its impact

felt at the political level. Sabey stated that:

> Project Canada West innundated legislative assemblies with Canadian studies. They wanted to make Canadian studies highly visible. . . . Project Canada West was successful in that the support for Canadian studies became a groundswell and once it was popularized, it became a "motherhood" thing. (Personal Interview, January 7, 1982)

Influence of Hurtig

Mel Hurtig had a powerful influence in creating an awareness and support among educators, politicians and the lay public for increased Canadian studies. At a time when Canadian nationalism was on the rise, his call gained him a sympathetic ear and struck a responsive chord among many sectors of the Canadian population (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982; Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981; Stiles, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981; Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982). Hurtig was much in demand as a speaker at conferences, conventions and other gatherings and his skills as a speaker were put to effective use. Sabey stated: "We used Mel a lot at conferences through the Canadian Studies Foundation. He was good for getting people stirred up about the issues" (Personal Interview, January 7, 1982).

The Hurtig Survey had a tremendous influence on the Alberta educational scene (Horvath, Personal Interview, November 24, 1981; Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981; Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982; Burley, Personal Interview, December 3, 1981; Mueller, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981; Chamberlin, Personal Interview, December 4, 1981). Horvath stated:

> There's been a growing concern about nationalism in Canada. . . . Hurtig's survey helped to focus a lot of those feelings. . . . I'm not sure who raised the main concern, but Hurtig certainly focused it for people. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981)

The Hurtig Survey had an impact on a number of levels. The media picked up on the survey immediately with the Edmonton Journal publishing Hurtig's results (Edmonton Journal, March 5, 1975). Not only did it publish the survey results but it called for strong action to remedy the situation described by Hurtig. In an editorial of March 26, 1975, the Journal stated:

> Be assured, he [Hurtig] has an army of concerned parents behind him when he asks, "What's with Canadian education today?" . . . The responsibility for the vacuum of Canadian knowledge so apparent in the schools today lies on these doorsteps—provincial politicians and university education facilities. . . . Teach Canada. (Edmonton Journal, March 26, 1975, p. 4)

The impact of the Hurtig survey's publication was not long in being felt at the political level. Members of the Edmonton Public School Board took immediate action. Trustee Mel Binder was a leading proponent of increased Canadian studies, stating that he:

> . . . found it deplorable that Edmonton publisher Mel Hurtig's recent survey of school children's knowledge of Canadian history showed most pupils don't even know that Parliament is housed in Ottawa" (Edmonton Journal, March 10, 1976, p. 25)

At the board meeting of March, 1975, the Edmonton public school trustees unanimously passed a motion by Binder which called for increased instruction in Canadian history. At that same meeting, Trustee Ernie Lund called for basic instruction in Canadian geography (Edmonton Journal, March 26, 1975). Thus the impact of the Hurtig survey via the Edmonton Public School Board placed pressure on the

provincial government which was responsible for curriculum content. Chamberlin saw the linkage this way: "Hurtig's study was published in the Journal which put pressure on the Edmonton Public School Board which in turn put pressure on the province" (Chamberlin, Personal Interview, December 4, 1981).

The provincial government also reacted to the Hurtig survey. The Minister of Education, Julian Koziak, asked his Department to prepare an analysis of the accuracies of the Hurtig survey as well as an analysis of the degree to which Canadian studies were included in the Grades 1-12 curriculum and of future plans for increasing Canadian content (Memo, Koziak to Hawkesworth, 1975). Sherk, Associate Director of Curriculum, also commented that the Hurtig survey appeared to be having a positive effect in increasing concern and awareness about Canadian studies in the curriculum of the schools (Memo, Sherk to Torgunrud, April 3, 1975).

Influence of the Downey Report

The Downey Report noted the large support that existed for increased Canadian content in the social studies. "Fully 82% of the teachers polled, 79% of the parents, and 65% of the students believe that the Canadian content of the social studies should be increased" (Downey, 1975, p. 11). It also noted the appearance of a new demand "for a kind of encyclopedic knowledge of Canada's history and geography" (Downey, 1975, p. 26). The report was very clear on the desirability of this approach stating that this view was ". . . completely incompatible with the expressed goals of education and with the fundamental orientations of the Social Studies program" (Downey,

1975, p. 26). It recommended that teachers and program developers ". . . exercise . . . caution as they move toward increased Canadiana in the curriculum" (Downey, 1975, p. 27) and that ". . . the desire for more Canadian content not be allowed to become the excuse for subverting some of the other goals of the program" (Downey, 1975, p. 27). As discussed earlier in this chapter, The Downey Report had a significant impact on subsequent social studies curriculum development, especially in providing the mandate to proceed with changes; however in subsequent changes to the curriculum, these recommendations were not entirely heeded.

Appointment of Dr. Ralph Sabey

Dr. Ralph Sabey, who had held the position of Executive Director of Curriculum with Project Canada West for five years, was appointed by the Alberta Department of Education in July, 1975, to fill the position of Consultant in Canadian Studies. In his role as a Canadian studies consultant, Sabey was to: develop and assess Canadian materials within the framework of the existing curriculum, provide assistance to the Curriculum Branch in the development of Canadian studies and to consult with teachers, the public, and other subject area consultants about Canadian studies. The rationale for Dr. Sabey's appointment and his subsequent work was provided as meeting some of the recommendations of The Downey Report (Sabey, 1976).

Canadian Content Resource Units

The demand for Canadian studies encouraged the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education to undertake the establishment

of curriculum development teams to develop units in Canadian studies for specific grade levels (Sabey, Personal Interview; January 7, 1982; Connors, Personal Interview, October 9, 1981). The curriculum development teams were assembled from across Alberta having an even representation of urban/rural, male/female (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). The curriculum development teams and the topics which they would be developing had to meet two basic criteria:

1. units had to be developed within the philosophy of the existing Alberta social studies program (1971).

2. units had to present a broad view of Canadian society.

Thirteen teams were established, located in the following jurisdictions and developing resource units on the following topics:

Grade I	County of Leduc	Canadian Families
Grade II	City of Medicine Hat	Canadian Neighbours
Grade III	Fort Vermilion School Division	Canadian Communities
Grade IV	Yellowhead School Division	Provincial Resources
Grade V	County of Minburn	Immigration
Grade VI	Calgary Catholic Separate	Building of C.P.R.
Grade VII	Edmonton Catholic Separate	Great Canadians
Grade VIII	County of Red Deer	Nationhood
Grade IX	Calgary Public	Impact of Communication on Canada
Grade X	East Smoky School Division	Canadian Identity
Grade XI	Pincher Creek School Division	Freedom and Control in Canada
Grade XII	Edmonton Public	Political and Economic Process
J.H.S.	Rocky Mountain House School Division	Integrate Language Arts, Social Studies—Canadians and their Contribution

(Sabey, 1976)

The process of developing the units began in November, 1975, when the Department of Education allocated three thousand dollars to help build each of the original units. (School boards paid matching amounts either in the form of money or teacher release time.) The

first meeting of the curriculum development teams was held in Edmonton on January 12, 1976. Mel Hurtig spoke at the initial meeting of the teams and according to Sabey, "He stirred them up" (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). At that meeting, it was decided that the resource units that would be developed would contain a teaching guide, process guide, teacher material and student material, and would be of approximately eight weeks in duration. The Department of Education would produce and distribute the units to schools at cost. Cost of the units was estimated to be approximately one hundred dollars (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982; Sabey, 1976).

After that meeting, the teams went back to their areas and began the process of developing the units working with students, parents, Alberta Education personnel, and local resource people. The teams met in Edmonton again on March 5, 1976, and developed a tentative document which indicated planned skills, concepts, value issues and specific Canadian generalizations which will be included in the resource units. This document was to guide the development of the units with the understanding that further modification would likely occur as the process continued. Tentative dates were established for the pilotting of the resource units and for the full scale introduction of the units. The respective dates set were January, 1977, and January, 1978 (Sabey, 1976).

The process of developing these units was considered a significant departure from the usual methods employed. One of the unique features was the decentralization of the curriculum development process. Sabey talked of the view of the Department of Education at that time:

"The Alberta Department of Education indicated that they wanted de-centralization with the original thirteen kits" (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). Another unique feature was the co-active approach used which attempted to achieve an interaction between the teaching and development components of the curriculum (Sabey, 1976). Connors, who was involved in the development of these resource units, talked about his experience with this process:

> At the school in which I taught, myself and a teacher called John White, became involved with . . . an experiment doing curriculum development locally, involving students and involving parents. . . . At that time, $40,000 was being put aside for 12-13 teams to actually develop curriculum to see if teachers were capable of it, to see what the involvement of the community would be, the input of school boards. I saw it really as an attempt to decentralize—an effort which I supported very strongly and which I think to a large extent we were quite successful with our projects. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Other Developments

In late 1973 and 1974, curriculum committees had been assigned the task of identifying learning resources that were authored and/or published by Canadians. In 1975, the titles of these resources were compiled in an extensive bibliography titled "Canadian Resources, 1975" and sent to all schools in Alberta. During the period May, 1975, to March, 1976, a large "caravan" toured the province displaying many of the titles included in the bibliography, "Canadian Resources, 1975" (Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, October 29, 1976; Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, November 4, 1977).

More Pressure

In 1976, there was increased pressure being placed on the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education to include more Canadian studies, history and geography as part of the Alberta social studies program. A memo from Ledgerwood to Torgunrud on October 29, 1976 stated that pressure was coming from school trustees, the news media, the teaching force, and citizens in general and they were making their impact felt on curriculum deliberations. A sampling of reactions follows.

The Alberta School Trustees Association (ASTA) took a strong stand for increased Canadian content. At their convention November 7-10, 1976, they passed resolutions to the following effect:

a. Strong emphasis be placed on our cultural heritage (Canadian) and the more positive aspects of that heritage.

b. It is our request then, that specific Canadian studies expectations be established for the program including identifiable units of Canadian history and geography.

c. The positive aspects of our culture must also be recognized. ("Resolutions and How They Fared," Alberta School Trustee, Vol. 46, no. 4, December, 1976, pp. 17-22)

In a letter to Ledgerwood on March 31, 1976, the provincial secretary of the Historical Society of Alberta, Mrs. Georgeen Barrass, asked for more compulsory Canadian content in Alberta social studies.

In 1976, the Royal Canadian Legion submitted a brief to the Department of Education calling for more Canadian content; and, in that same year, a submission was made to the Provincial Cabinet by the Women of Unifarm asking that the Alberta social studies curriculum devote more attention to women who have been prominent in the history of Alberta.

This type of input had an influence (Johnson, Personal Interview, December 16, 1981). As Stiles stated: "Input by anyone is given consideration. Even a letter can have an influence" (Personal Interview, November 25, 1981). The fact that most submissions to the Department of Education and the government were supportive of increased Canadian studies provided added weight to the development of curriculum in this direction.

Work of the SSCCC

Canadian Studies Resource Units

In early 1976, the SSCCC gave its support and endorsement to the work that was being done on the Canadian Content Resource Units and saw the Canadian studies units as being the first phase in the development of Canadian content in the social studies program (Letter, Crowther, Educational Consultant for social studies, to Sabey, March 29, 1976).

The link between the SSCCC and the curriculum development teams of the Canadian Resource Units was Ralph Sabey. Sabey would attend the meetings of the SSCCC and report on the projects—their development and progress. The SSCCC had no input into the work of the curriculum development teams (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). The SSCCC however, did attempt to have some input into this process. At the same meeting where the SSCCC had endorsed the work of the Canadian studies development teams, they also passed motions calling for the formation of a reaction panel comprised of members of the development teams and members of the SSCCC, to ensure the units were consistent with the Alberta Social Studies Master Plan, and to

provide a list of criteria that each curriculum unit should adhere to (Letter, Crowther to Sabey, March 29, 1976).

Grade Level Unit Outlines

The SSCCC also undertook the task of including Canadian studies topics at each grade level (Shortt, Personal Interview, December 10, 1981; CPB Minutes, February 2, 3, 1978).

The Political Influence

"Social studies had become an area of great public interest and concern and controversy" (Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981). As described previously, social studies had gained much attention over the issue of increased Canadian content, and this issue caused much interest at the political level. The leading political figures in Alberta took a strong stand in favour of increased Canadian content, including the Minister of Education, Julian Koziak (Memo, Ledgerwood to Hawkesworth, January 20, 1976) and Premier Lougheed (Dever, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Ledgerwood stated: "The Deputy Minister, the Premier, and . . . the Minister had the personal conviction that we needed a lot more Canadian content" (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

The particular orientation of these senior political figures was that increased Canadian content meant increased Canadian history particularly, and Canadian geography (Morgan, Personal Correspondence, February, 1982; Stiles, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981). Crowther discussed their view:

> Now, there was the group who wanted more disciplined studies, particularly history. They tended to be centred in the university Faculty of Arts and they tended to be substantiated by the politicians. I know from personal meetings with the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet that they were people who felt that social studies was not really a subject at all. What they wanted was history. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Torgunrud also noted that the government, Social Planning Committee of Cabinet, the Premier in some of his pronouncements and the Minister favoured a social studies program that included more history and geography (Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982). Ledgerwood in a memo to Hawkesworth on December 3, 1976, stated that the social studies program was under scrutiny by the provincial cabinet (Cabinet Committee on Priorities) which was concerned about the amount of Canadian studies and Canadian history that would be incorporated into the social studies curriculum that was currently under revision.

The influence of the leading members of government on the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education was an important one. Crowther, when asked if these individuals had an impact on the 1978 curriculum which contained more history, stated:

> Certainly. It had an impact in a number of ways. I think that every time those people's demands surfaced, they had many effects and some of them are quite subtle. One was that people checked to see if there were other ways to incorporate history if there wasn't history there. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Chamberlin also discussed the type of influence that was brought to bear by government figures:

> Lougheed has a lot of weight and in 1977 made a speech to the Canadian Education Association. He made it very clear that Canadian children had to have a Canadian identify and that was the responsibility of social studies. In order to do that,

> there had to be a heavy dose of Canadian history. That word filters down through the political structure. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981)

Torgunrud similarly spoke about this political influence:

> The Premier goes on public record as saying this, and then those who agree will pick this up and through their avenues and approaches will impact the system. (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982)

The type of influence described here is an indirect one. There are no dictates as to what must be followed, but the indirect influence existed nonetheless. Bill Dever, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, talked of these influences on the SSCCC which was developing the 1978 social studies program as being ". . . unconscious; but, they were there and they had an influence" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982).

During this period, there were also direct influences from the government regarding increased Canadian studies. Crowther, in speaking to the members of a social studies ad hoc committee, stated that the Minister of Education had indicated that Canadian content must be emphasized (Minutes of the Ad Hoc Committee, 1978). In May, 1978, the Alberta Legislature adopted a new set of Goals of Basic Education for Alberta. The Goals are:

> . . . statements which indicate what is to be achieved or worked toward. In relation to basic education, goals serve several functions.
>
> 1. they identify the distinctive role of the school and its contribution to the total education of youth.
> 2. they provide purpose and direction to curriculum planning, implementation, and evaluation.
> 3. they enable parents, teachers and the community at large to develop a common understanding of what the schools are trying to achieve. (Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, p. 10)

Under the title, "Goals of Schooling," one of the specific goals is to

> . . . acquire knowledge and develop skills and attitudes in mathematics, the practical and fine arts, the sciences, and the social studies (including history and geography) [emphasis added] with appropriate local, national and international emphasis in each. (Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, p. 10)

Here the stipulation of including history and geography in social studies was not an indirect influence, but a direct one as the goals were given to ". . . provide purpose and direction to curriculum planning, implementation and evaluation" (Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978, p. 10).

Another source of direct influence was the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet which purused and discussed the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition before it was officially adopted. The Minister of Education, Julian Koziak, brought it to the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet for discussion because of the highly contentious nature of social studies at this time. Torgunrud saw it this way:

> The Minister of the day, because of his perceptions and the Canadian scene, said we've got to make sure we can answer to our constituencies that history, geography and civics are recognizable in here, and I want my colleagues involved because it's too explosive to handle by myself. This is not usual, but because social studies is contentious, a highly volatile area, he knows his colleagues are divided on it and for it to pass, he must bring it to a larger arena for debate [Social Planning Committee]. (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982)

Torgunrud classified this as an example of direct government influence on the social studies curriculum (Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982). After initially reviewing the interim edition of the social studies curriculum, the Cabinet requested more detail and

Torgunrud in a memo to B. Chandler and F. Schreiber on June 15, 1978 noted that it was particularly critical that the outlines contain history and geography and that the main concepts of the curriculum reflect these two disciplines.

The political influence brought to bear on the curriculum appeared to be both indirect and direct, and to have had a considerable impact on the curriculum in the area of increased Canadian studies. Ledgerwood stated that: "the ultimate decision to increase Canadian content came from the very senior people in the Department and the government. . . . There was a real political influence" (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). Bob Carter, former Chairperson of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, also identified the political influence to increase Canadian content. He stated:

> There was pressure from the Curriculum Branch and probably the politicians to increase Canadian content to become a larger part of the program. (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982, revised through personal correspondence, September 1, 1982)

The move to increase Canadian content met with some resistance from those who saw too much Canadian content and favoured a "more equitable balance" among local, national, and international studies. This was particularly true of Ledgerwood (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). In the reaction meetings held across Alberta to discuss the new drafts of the social studies curriculum, as they were being developed by the SSCCC, there were also some who questioned whether Canadian studies had been overdone (Summary of meetings held to garner reactions to Draft #7 of the revised social studies curriculum, 1977; Letter, W. Dever, Principal St. Vincent de Paul

Elementary and Junior High School, Calgary to Ledgerwood, March 16, 1977; Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

Despite these negative reactions to the amount of Canadian content incorporated into the 1978 social studies program, a number of people interviewed in this study saw the government leaders as reacting to widespread public demand for increased Canadian content and that they exerted their influence because of this (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982; Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981; Horvath, Personal Interview, November 24, 1981). Torgunrud stated: "One has to recognize that they are in a public position giving public voice to a public cry. They were reactive" (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982). Shortt supported Torgunrud's view: "Government has to respond to the people in its province. The 1978 curriculum was a response to the public demand for more Canadian content . . ." (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981).

Alberta Heritage Savings Trust
Learning Resources Project

Another direct influence of the government in increasing Canadian content in Alberta social studies classrooms was the initiation of the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Learning Resources Project. The original idea for this project came from Premier Lougheed. Ledgerwood stated that: "Lougheed wrote to Koziak a hand-printed memo that said, 'Julian, I think we need an encyclopedia of Alberta'" (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). The leadership of the Curriculum Branch, like Torgunrud and Ledgerwood, in return made a counter-proposal that alternatively proposed the development of other resources like

multi-media packages and story-book histories of the province rather than the encyclopedia (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981; Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982). Ledgerwood developed the proposal more concretely and then passed it on to Torgunrud, Director of Curriculum, who presented it to the Premier and Cabinet for approval. The approval by the Premier and Cabinet resulted in the establishment of the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Fund Learning Resources Project in October, 1977. Ledgerwood described the process this way:

> And so, taking the germ of an idea from the Premier's desk, I wrote a proposal for the Alberta Heritage Project. There were four components to it: the Kanata Kits, readers for elementary kids—Alberta history and geography, some junior high materials—anthology of materials, and a senior high and adult project—Alberta novels. I wrote up the proposal, took it to Torgunrud, and he got it through Cabinet and approved as the Heritage Trust Fund Project. (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981)

The general objects of the project were:

1. Provide Canadian content learning resources for three Alberta curricula: language arts, science and social studies.

2. Provide an opportunity for the editors, authors, illustrators, graphic artists, etc. from Alberta and other parts of Canada.

3. Utilize the capabilities of the province for publishing, but with the recognition that because of the volume, timelines, and quantity of the projects, publishing will be required to go beyond the provincial boundaries.

The summary of projects developed are provided on pages 133-135. There were some changes made as the project progressed, but the major components remained intact.

The government funded the project with $8.37 million dollars from the Capital Projects Division of the Alberta Heritage Savings

SUMMARY OF PROJECTS

Project	Objective(s)	Description	Distribution
1.0 Books for Young Readers	To provide Alberta students with quality reference books about their history and natural environment.	Twelve-volume sets of books, some with large-format pictures will be produced for use by students in Grades 4, 5 & 6. The set will be children's editions of books previously published for adults.	All elementary schools in Alberta
2.0 Western Canadian Literature for Adolescents	To provide Alberta students with access to a collection of selected Canadian literary works which will meet the needs of the Alberta curriculum.	Collections of ten books of published stories, poems and/or plays written by Canadians about Western Canada will be specially bound for use by Alberta students in junior high school.	All secondary schools in Alberta
3.0 Alberta Literature for Senior Students and Adults	To provide quality Alberta literature to Alberta senior high school students and adults and to recipients of special presentation sets.	From published works written about the history, geography and people of Alberta existing works will be selected for rebinding and distribution in Alberta and beyond. Preference will be given to those works written by Alberta authors.	All senior high schools, post-secondary educational institutions, senior citizens' homes and drop-in centres, public libraries, hospitals, chronic hospitals, and nursing homes.

SUMMARY OF PROJECTS (cont'd)

Project	Objective(s)	Description	Distribution
4.0 Learning Resource Kits		Specially packaged kits containing a variety of learning resources (print and non-print) will be produced for use by teachers and students at all grade levels. The material will relate to specific curricula and concentrate on those areas of greatest need for Canadian and provincial learning resources.	
4.1 Canadian Studies	To enhance teaching and learning about our Alberta and Canadian heritage.	Sixteen kits containing both print and non-print materials.	Grades 1-12
4.2 Junior Atlas and Relief Map of Alberta	To provide upper elementary school students with a readable atlas which will reveal the history, geography and living patterns of Albertans and to show Alberta's place in Canada and the world. The relief map will enable students to locate and identify features as desired and will be displayed in public buildings throughout the province.	Atlas and large fibreglass relief map of Alberta. The map may be colored by students to show particular features.	ATLAS - Grades 4-6 MAP - All schools Public buildings

SUMMARY OF PROJECTS (cont'd)

Project	Objective(s)	Description	Distribution
4.3 Flora and Fauna of Alberta	To provide a learning resource designed to help students become familiar with the flora and fauna of Alberta, the ecological relationships among them and their contributions to our heritage.	Each kit will contain about 620 35 mm color slides of Alberta flora and fauna along with Teacher's Guides and support material.	Grades 1-7.

Trust Fund. This type of funding was unprecedented (Morgan, Personal Correspondence, February, 1982). Badger stated: "We had never seen anything like it. It was a very radical approach" (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981).

The Kanata Kits

The Kanata Kits were a major part of the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Learning Resources Project. Their release satisfied some of the demand for more Canadian resources. Because the Kanata Kits were a central component of the new resources that were made available for use in social studies classrooms, their development is a significant feature in social studies curriculum development in Alberta.

The origin of the Kanata Kits started with the Canadian Content Resource Units (see pages 120 to 123 for description). The original units were resource units that were to provide an extra illustrative type of material (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982; Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982). But once the monies from the Heritage Learning Resources Project were allocated, the nature of the units changed—they became more product oriented (Connors, Personal Interview, October 9, 1981), they became curriculum kits with methodology included (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982) and they became examples of exemplary materials (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982). Sabey saw the change occurring as a result of a political decision. He stated:

> It was a political decision. What we need is more structure—this was the position of the Minister who wanted methodology included in the Kits. . . . The Alberta Department of Education indicated that they wanted de-centralization with the original thirteen kits; then they reversed that position when the Kits became the Kanata Kits and the Department of Education took over. (Personal Interview, January 7, 1982)

In the first few months of 1978, when work was begun on the Kanata Kits, the administration of the project went through a number of executive officers before Linda Weigl assumed the position. Weigl was to play a central role in the development of the Kanata Kits. Crowther described her role in this fashion:

> I doubt very much if anybody else I know could have done that job. I don't think there was anybody else around who could have taken a process like this value inquiry or social inquiry as we called it and transpose it into curriculum material. Not just once but sixteen times the way she did. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Booi, in describing Weigl's contribution, stated:

> I have to give credit to Linda Weigl. She made all the decisions. There were demands from the top; there was material flowing in; and the nexus of the project was her office. . . . The Kanata Kit decisions clearly centred on Weigl. She was the only one who knew fully what was going on. (Personal Interview, Feburary 15, 1982)

When Weigl assumed the role of development coordinator for the Kanata Kits, the nature of the project changed course. The aim was to make the kits ". . . more broadly based so a teacher could pick up the kit and use if for Topic A" (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982). No longer were the units simply extra illustration, but they became actual teaching units themselves.

The fact that there was such generous funding from the Heritage Trust Fund made it possible for the kits to take on the

character they did—multi-media packages of a self-contained unit of study to be used at each grade level. The high level of funding was an important factor and was noted by Parsons: "Money had the biggest stamp on what was happening" (Personal Interview, January 20, 1982).

In January, 1979, Larry Booi was seconded from the Edmonton Public School Board to work on the Kanata Kit project as an assistant coordinator. Booi was also seen as a central figure in influencing the development of the Kanata Kits (Parsons, Personal Interview, January 20, 1982). Central to all the kits was a social inquiry model developed by Weigl and Booi. All work had to be developed in the framework of inquiry that was established. Booi stated:

> When Canadian Studies came in, it did not have to fit to one inquiry model. But when Kanata Kits came in and they were going to be exemplary of a curriculum, then absoluately they had to follow this inquiry model. (Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

The model was composed of four parts: (1) opener and introduction, (2) research, (3) conclusion, (4) evaluation (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982). Of the model, Booi stated:

> That stood up extremely well. All they've done in the eight part cycle [in the curriculum guides] is that they've fleshed out the four part model. . . . The model set a structure that would allow people to be creative, and to be consistent with the inquiry process. (Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

The process of developing the Kanata Kits began with the people from the Canadian Studies Resource Units handing in their products to Weigl's office. It would then go to the Kanata Kit people for revision to bring it in line with the existing curriculum. Booi

described the process this way:

> Weigl was in charge and she would hire someone to re-write. Here's the original material. Here's what we need. A lot of the re-writing was in-house stuff. I wrote a lot of it. They were trying to spread it around the province and involve everyone in re-writing, but sometimes it wasn't done right, so I would re-do it. (Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

Although a lot of the work was "in-house," Booi praised the project for involving teachers. He stated:

> They worked very hard to involve a great number of classroom teachers. That's an impressive thing about the projects. . . . It really was a teachers' project right from the Canadian Studies Project where they farmed out to these areas. (Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

An evaluation of the Canadian Studies Resource Units by D. Massey and W. Werner was critical of many aspects of the units. Massey and Werner's report acted as a guide in the subsequent re-writing of the units (Crowther, Personal Interview, July 14, 1982).

This process of re-writing the Canadian Studies Resource Units offended many members of the original curriculum development teams. Sabey noted: "The original work was altered and the teachers involved didn't think it was for valid educational reasons" (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982). Horvath recalled the experience this way:

> The Canadian Studies Project was launched a few years before the 1978 program was started and various groups got quite committed to their work and to their project. I was part of that. The Grade nine project was the one that I was involved in. As a group we were really excited about what we were doing. Although our project was criticized because it might not have validity across the province, we weren't concerned. We loved it. I think that part of the reason it didn't quite dovetail was that there was this idea of the mutualistic mode in which

> you let curriculum groups work without constraints and hopefully, in the end, programs would be developed that would appear to be coherent. There were a lot of people who worked on the Canadian Studies Project who were unhappy about that approach about the lack of guidance. Many of us felt that the project directors could either give us all the freedom we want and allow us to have a good time, but they should not try to draw us back to something that should have been organized in the first place. Some people's work was changed radically. And the thing about it was that their ideas that were replacing those that were in the original material didn't necessarily appear to be better. . . . So some hard feelings that resulted were based on this problem. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981)

Booi also noted this:

> There were a number of hard feelings on a number of the units that were re-written. We tried to make use of the material if we could. But it was now a totally different purpose—a multi-media package. (Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

There were sixteen Kanata Kits developed in all. In twelve cases, the former Canadian Studies Resource Units were adapted, and in four others, new topics were developed by other jurisdictions (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982). All units were validated and at least some segments of each unit underwent pilotting. Most of the units had only activity pilotting instead of pilotting the whole unit. This was done primarily because of time pressures. Booi stated:

> There was enormous pressure to get this stuff out. Pressure was coming from the government who was kicking out this money and were saying, "Let's get something out in the field." (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982)

Once a Kanata Kit was completed, it was sent to Crowther, the Associate Director of Curriculum, for approval. When approval was obtained, the Kit then went to the manufacturers to be made ready to distribute to all schools throughout Alberta (Booi, Personal Interview, February 15, 1982).

The Kanata Kits formed a major part of the Heritage Learning Resources Project, and were a major contribution to the provincial government's commitment to increase the amount of Canadian resources in Alberta schools.

Summary

This section of Chapter 4 focused on the forces that sought to influence the social studies curriculum revisions regarding the issue of increased Canadian studies. It identified those individuals and groups who were involved in this process and the influence they brought to bear on this issue.

With the celebration of Canada's Centennial in 1967, a rise in Canadian nationalism occurred which affected many aspects of Canadian life including education. In 1968, A. B. Hodgetts published What Culture? What Heritage? which demonstrated that Canadian teachers and students lacked a knowledge of Canada. In 1969, a Canadian Studies Conference was held which resulted in the establishment of the Canadian Studies Foundation whose aim was to increase and improve the teaching of Canadian studies. In 1970, a regional project centre of the Canadian Studies Foundation was established in Western Canada called Project Canada West. In 1975, Mel Hurtig published a survey of high school students which revealed student difficulty in answering certain questions about Canada.

The Canadian Studies Foundation, Project Canada West and Mel Hurtig exerted a strong influence in creating awareness and support among educators, politicians, and the lay public for increased Canadian studies. The Alberta media picked up on this issue and added their

voice to the call for increased Canadian studies. School boards and their provincial organization, the Alberta School Trustees Association, strongly pressed for more Canadian content in the social studies.

The Alberta Department of Education responded to this pressure. In 1973 and 1974, curriculum committees undertook the task of identifying learning resources that were authored and/or published by Canadians. Dr. Ralph Sabey was appointed to the position of Consultant in Canadian studies in 1975. As well, in 1975 curriculum development teams were established to develop units in Canadian studies for specific grade levels. In 1975 and 1976, a large caravan toured Alberta displaying Canadian titles.

The influence of teachers, politicians, and the lay public was exerted on the SSCCC and influenced the amount and content of Canadian studies in the revised social studies curriculum.

In 1977, the provincial government established the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Fund Learning Resources Project which committed 8.37 million dollars to producing Canadian studies materials, of which many could be used in Alberta social studies classrooms.

While this section of Chapter 4 examined the influences that affected the increase in Canadian studies in Alberta social studies, the next section focuses on the influences that were brought to bear in affecting the move to increased structure and prescription in the 1978 social studies curriculum.

Increased Structure and Prescription in Alberta Social Studies

Chapter 3 discussed the shift to greater specificity in the 1978 social studies curriculum as compared to the 1971 curriculum. This move to greater specificity was reflected in a number of ways. The knowledge, skills, and value objectives were specified for each grade level, and detailed grade level content was also provided. A limited number of resources were prescribed or recommended for use in Alberta social studies classrooms. The time allocated for inquiry into issues selected by teachers, students, and community was reduced from one-third to one-quarter of the total class time. And, with the introduction of these components into the 1978 social studies program, the autonomy of the teacher was reduced, in that the teacher did not play as paramount a role in developing curriculum for use in the classroom or in developing, assessing and using resources.

This section of the chapter examines the factors that influenced the move to greater specificity in the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition. As well, it examines the curriculum development process, and the outcomes of that process up to the time of the formal approval of the social studies curriculum by the Curriculum Policies Board in February, 1978.

The Societal Context

Unlike the period that gave rise to the 1971 curriculum, the societal context giving rise to the 1978 curriculum was different. The period of the mid 1970's saw a conservative trend on the rise accompanied by a less buoyant economy. (Alberta's economy remained

buoyant though, because of the oil industry.) This new conservatism was reflected in education (Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982; Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981; Shortt, Personal Interview, December 10, 1981; Parsons, Personal Interview, January 20, 1982; Van Manen, Personal Interview, October 22, 1981).

Ledgerwood described the period this way:

> Curriculum reflects the ethos of the society in which it's being developed. Ethos stems from economic conditions of that society. If you look at the 1971 curriculum, there was an economic buoyancy that gave rise to a permissiveness and a willingness to provide a freedom to learn. By 1975 that was weakening. By 1978, it had changed. . . . By 1978, the society was swinging to the right. . . . A right wing philosophy was coming into dominance. (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981)

Connors discussed this conservative trend as well, stating:

> When I first went on the committee [SSCCC], I felt we were in a fairly liberal type of environment, but as we moved on, it became noticeable that there was a much more conservative element appearing in education. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

And Horvath described the change from 1971 this way:

> I remember attending a session at a teachers' convention run by Sidney Simon, the granddaddy of the values clarification movement. And looking back, it was quite an incredible encounter. The session was almost like an evangelistic appeal, an affirmation of the particular views upon which his approach was based. And that was very much in keeping with that era. . . . Since then [there's been] a change—a sobering up. I'd have to peg the session around 1974-1975. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981)

Back to the Basics

One of the manifestations of this conservative trend found in education was the "back to the basics" movement. Debbie Morgan, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, described it this way:

> When society is in economic problems, it tends to look at its education system and want more "specific" outcomes. Such as, knowing the ten provinces of Canada rather than the student having the ability to know where to find such knowledge. (Personal Correspondence, February, 1982)

The call for a return to the basics or a re-emphasis of the "basics" did not only arise in Alberta but became a national phenomenon. In late 1976, Ontario introduced a new program of studies which was classified as a return to the basics. "Ontario's high school students are in for a bigger helping of reading', 'riting, and 'rithmetic in school year 1977-78" (Cohen in the Edmonton Journal, October 20, 1976, p. 33). The action taken by the Ontario government was a result of complaints from parents and the universities. Cohen wrote:

> . . . the complaints have rolled ever louder off the tongues of parents and university administrators. The kids can't read, write, or spell. They can't do the most fundamental exercises. What's going on here, anyway? (Cohen in the Edmonton Journal, October 20, 1976, p. 33)

In late 1976, the government of British Columbia joined with Ontario in implementing programs that would stress the "basics" in education. "B.C. is following in the wake of Ontario and tightening up government control over education standards in this province" (Hills in the Edmonton Journal, November 5, 1976, p. 35). Hills also writes that "the laissez-faire era of education seems definitely to be over" and "the message is clear—it's 'back to the basics'" (Hills in the Edmonton Journal, November 5, 1976, p. 35). And in 1977, Nova Scotia joined the "basics" movement in some of its school programs (Edmonton Journal, June 22, 1977, p. 106).

Alberta, like most provinces in Canada, also witnessed calls for curriculum to emphasize the "basics" and to ". . . return to a more

conservative program of structure, regulation and control" (Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981). Like most school subjects, Alberta social studies was also influenced by this "back to the basics" movement.

The Media

The Alberta media provided coverage of those forces demanding a return to the "basics" in education. Editorial writers of the Edmonton Journal endorsed a position which advocated the importance of basic education. An editorial, in the Edmonton Journal, stated:

> The educational stew can be laced with additives, thick with enriched gravy and covered with dumplings. But without the meat and potatoes which the three R's provide, it remains lacking in nourishment. (Edmonton Journal, August 23, 1976, p. 4)

St. John's Edmonton Report also gave wide coverage to the issues of basic education and standards in Alberta education. Social studies came under criticism for its values orientation, its neglect of history, and its lack of content and structure. The cover of the January 5, 1976 issue was titled "The Social Studies Scandal" and in that issue, four pages were devoted to an examination of The Downey Report. The article was titled "Social Studies Flunks in Alberta; Downey Report Blasts Puzzled Teachers" and concluded that:

> Their report meant that for seven years educational "professionals" have been experimenting with the roots of Alberta culture and botching the job. In any other profession the report would have been regarded as a shock and a scandal. In education, it made page 12 of the Edmonton Journal. (St. John's Edmonton Report, January 5, 1976, p. 16)

As well, the article gave prominent coverage to Leif Stolee who was a prominent critic of the 1971 social studies program (Ibid., pp. 18-19).

St. John's Edmonton Report continued to give wide coverage to the Alberta social studies program and to the issue of standards and basic education. In the February 9, 1976 issue, the magazine re-printed a critique of The Downey Report by Leif Stolee titled "Former Social Studies Supervisor Incisively Rips the Course Apart" (St. John's Edmonton Report, February 9, 1976, pp. 16-17).

Two articles appeared in the February 16, 1976 issue titled "Funny Thing about Progressive Education: After All These Years, the Kids Can't Read" (St. John's Edmonton Report, February 16, 1976, pp. 23-24) and "Wild Idea for New Type School: Be Strict and Teach Academics" (St. John's Edmonton Report, February 16, 1976, p. 24).

In March, 1976, various issues of St. John's Edmonton Report carried articles which either reported on the criticism directed at the social studies program, or made editorial comments critical of the program. In one article titled "Five Public Trustees Moving in on Education's Power Structure, Teachers Protest Board's 'Drastic' Crackdown on Incompetence," the magazine stated:

> What he [Premier Lougheed] saw was not only an ever deepening public unhappiness with the whole system, but also the clear possibility that many of the other ills of society—the breakdown of the family, increasing crime, a reluctance to work, cynicism in business, the emasculation in art—could be traced to a whole generation raised to believe in nothing other than undefinable "love."
>
> The system [education] itself, meanwhile, observed the same disastrous flaw. Its response, in part, was the social studies program. . . . The social studies course failed for two reasons:
>
> 1. the examination of values became a mere memorization of alternative points of view from among which the student made his choice, not on the basis of reason, which required facts, but on the basis of something he called "gut feeling," that is emotionally.

2. the course could provide no moral code because it didn't believe in one. So it asked the student to decide which course of action he believed right without giving him any basis for deciding what was right or wrong.

It is not surprising therefore that the mutiny against the system broke out first in the social studies course. (St. John's Edmonton Report, March 29, 1976, p. 23)

Throughout the rest of 1976, at least one article per month appeared in St. John's Edmonton Report dealing with the issues of basic education, standards, or the social studies program. In 1977, the magazine continued to give coverage to the educational issues raised throughout 1976.

Parents

In Alberta, there were calls by parents to have the school systems emphasize the basics. In an article titled "Parents Plead for Return to Three R's," Andy Imlach of the Edmonton Journal reported that:

> In an emotion-charged confrontation with Education Minister Julian Koziak [at the annual convention of the Progressive Conservative Party], parents from across Alberta have pleaded for schools to be ordered back to teaching the 'Three R's.' (Imlach in the Edmonton Journal, March 28, 1977, p. 1)

Some parent advisory committees took strong positions in favour of basic education. One example was the St. Edmund School's parent advisory committee which sought ways ". . . of adopting a return to basic education and a greater emphasis on the 3 R's" (Edmonton Journal, January 11, 1977, p. 18).

Bob Cohen of the Edmonton Journal reported parent concern in this area stating that:

> No doubt there were parents who did not embrace the philosophy of the "back to the basics" movement. However, these parents

> were certainly not as vocal and did not receive the same public press as did the advocates of "basic" education. (Cohen in the Edmonton Journal, October 20, 1976, p. 33)

During the period 1976 to early 1978 while the social studies curriculum was being developed, reactions to the revised program were sought by the Department of Education. Although large numbers of parents were not involved in this process, those that were involved indicated they held differing views on the degree of specificity that should be included in the social studies curriculum. At a meeting with parents of students in the Calgary Public School System the view that the 1971 program was not specific enough was expressed. On the other hand, parents in the County of Grande Prairie expressed support for the 1971 curriculum (Summary of meetings held to garner reactions to Draft #7 of the revised social studies curriculum, 1977). On the question of resources, parents indicated support for a much more limited list of references (Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, April 20, 1977).

Students

Students' views of curriculum did not appear to be solicited to any large degree. The reactions of only two groups of students were reported in the Department of Education's summary of meetings held to garner reactions to the interim drafts of the social studies curriculum. A meeting of thirty-five students in Peace River recognized and accepted the idea of uniformity and prescription. Students in Grande Prairie supported the idea of prescription to overcome problems associated with provincial mobility, as well as favouring the use of specific textbooks (Summary of meetings held to garner reactions to

Draft #7 of the revised social studies curriculum, 1977).

Alberta School Boards

The school boards in Alberta took stands which favoured an emphasis on basic education and more centralized control of education. In 1976, the annual convention of the Alberta School Trustees Association (ASTA) passed a resolution urging the government

> . . . to exercise much greater leadership and responsibility for the development, implementation, and evaluation of core curriculum in Alberta for basic education kindergarten to Grade 12. (Alberta School Trustee, Vol. 46, no. 4, December, 1976, p. 21)

The ASTA also supported the establishment of province-wide curriculum projects and standardized tests at each grade level (Minutes of the Curriculum Policies Board, November 1, 2, 1976).

Trustees also indicated their concern as to the level of achievement of basic skills by school children by agreeing to administer tests to measure students' achievement. In 1977, the Metro Council of the Alberta School Trustees Association, representing public and Catholic systems in Calgary and Edmonton, agreed to administer the Canadian Test of Basic Skills to Grades four and seven students (Edmonton Journal, March 19, 1977, p. 15). In that same year, the Edmonton Public School Board, in response to the "hot issue" of the "back to the basics" debate, administered a series of tests to Grade three students in order to compare them to their counterparts of 1956 (Edmonton Journal, April 9, 1977, p. 24).

Some trustees also indicated their dissatisfaction with the values clarification approach used in the 1971 social studies

curriculum (Leslie Francis, "Trustee loaded for bear in Canadian History Trek," Edmonton Journal, March 24, 1975, p. 14).

Universities

Some segments of the university community were criticizing the schools for the "student product" that they were producing (Cohen in the Edmonton Journal, October 20, 1976, p. 33; Minutes of the Curriculum Policies Board, February 15, 16, 1977). Nicholas Hills in an article in the Edmonton Journal wrote that there were "Increasingly complaints from university administrators that students were entering halls of higher learning as illiterates who couldn't write properly (Hills in the Edmonton Journal, November 5, 1976, p. 35).

This criticism of the schools was not a universally held view of all segments of the university community and some elements of the university community cautioned against the back to the basics movement. Myer Horowitz, who in 1977 was academic vice president of the University of Alberta and former dean of the Faculty of Education, stated that "the public pressure for emphasis on basic skills may oversimplify the role of the school and its teachers" (Horowitz as quoted in the Edmonton Journal, October 29, 1977, p. 26).

Superintendents

The annual report of the Alberta School Superintendents indicated their support for a reduced number of identified learning resources in social studies and for a rental discount of forty percent on these identified resources. The report indicated that teachers had difficulty in selecting learning resources because of the lengthy lists

that existed. (For example, the elementary resource bibliography contained three hundred titles of books, audio visual material and kits and the secondary resource bibliography contained three hundred and fifty titles.) (Minutes, Curriculum Policies Board, May 5, 6, 1977) Because the School Book Branch couldn't stock all of the social studies learning resources as a result of the large number of resources and their costs, delays in delivery of three to six weeks occurred because these resources had to be special ordered. As well, the Superintendents noted that the forty percent rental discount was applied to learning resources in all subjects but social studies (Memo, Fedorak, Manager of the School Book Branch, to Ledgerwood, December 22, 1977).

Horvath discussed the view of the Superintendents regarding the matter of resource selection. He stated:

> . . . some of the groups who had a strong say in this were the boards, and superintendents, and assistant superintendents particularly in the rural areas because they were heavily involved in ordering materials and they were quite frustrated by the variety of resources approved. They didn't know what should be ordered for their classrooms. Since they couldn't afford the variety that was called for, they had to go with one text or one set of materials; so, I think that superintendents and assistant superintendents voiced their concern to the Department. They wanted more guidance in what to purchase. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

The Public

Although the term "public" is a nebulous one, it usually refers to the people of a set jurisdiction (i.e., a reference to "the public's view in Alberta" would be interpreted as the view held by the people of Alberta). The ascertaining of the "public view" can also be somewhat nebulous; however, it is usually correct that the views of the most vocal groups that form the "public" are taken as

representing this broad "public" view. Sometimes certain groups within the "public" are identified, while at other times the term "public" is used to refer to the people of the province.

The "public" in Alberta was perceived as supporting and demanding a return to "basic" education (Edmonton Journal, October 29, 1977, p. 26; Imlach, 1977, p. 29; CPB Minutes, February 15, 17, 1977). For Alberta social studies, this meant a return to more specific content in its program (Edmonton Journal, October 19, 1978, p. B6). Alberta government officials referred to the public in some of their pronouncements on education. The perception of these politicians also supported the view that the public wanted more structure and more emphasis on the basics of education. The Edmonton Journal reported that, in a year-end interview in 1976, Premier Lougheed identified the educational concerns of Alberta. The article stated:

> Mr. Lougheed said Albertans seem to be concerned that not enough emphasis is being placed on the basics in education, including the ability to read and write. (Sinclair in the Edmonton Journal, December 29, 1976, p. 1)

Julian Koziak, in 1976 the Alberta Minister of Education, also identified the public view as being one concerned that education in Alberta had ceased to give students a basic education. In greetings given to the first meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board, Koziak stated that education in Alberta was being questioned by the public and that they were particularly concerned with the basic abilities of students in mathematics and language arts (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976).

Although distinct groups within the "public" were rarely identified, one group that was identified was the Alberta Chamber of

Commerce. Their view was that final marks of students were inflated and that students who were leaving high school had experienced inadequate preparation for work or further education. Because of this, the Alberta Chamber of Commerce called for a re-evaluation of education to encourage the development of basic skills, a more positive attitude to work and responsibilities, and the establishment of standards (CPB Minutes, February 15, 16, 1977).

Teachers

The 1971 social studies curriculum provided teachers with a large degree of autonomy. Teachers were to be curriculum developers with the provincial curriculum guides providing only minimal guidelines. Teachers were to play a central role in developing, assessing, and using resources that would be suitable for the curriculum they were developing. Some teachers in Alberta embraced this new autonomy and their new role as curriculum developers. But they appeared to be in a minority. For most Alberta teachers, the new autonomy was confusing and disturbing. The majority wanted help and direction and they did not want to be curriculum developers (Dever, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982; Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981; Stiles, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981; Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981; Van Manen, Personal Interview, October 22, 1981; Morgan, Personal Correspondence, February, 1982).

Torgunrud discussed the views of Alberta teachers toward the new autonomy they experienced with the introduction of the 1971 program. He stated:

> Wherever you have leaders, you have followers. The Downey Study reported that generally speaking you're talking about 15% leaders and 85% followers. Teachers were saying: This [autonomy] is not in my makeup. I have no objection to giving me direction and help. Don't ask me to be a curriculum developer. (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982)

Lorne Mullen, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, also discussed teacher demand for more structure. He stated:

> Teachers were asking for it [structure]. Certainly in my work as a consultant, I had a large number of teachers who were in contact with me and they wanted it [structure] . . . I had no problem convincing myself that teachers wanted a lot more prescription. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

Badger described how teachers responded to the 1971 program of studies.

> Nineteen hundred and seventy-one was just overwhelming for teachers. The whole philosophical basis of curriculum had changed. e.g., no textbooks . . . with the emphasis on teachers to build something. This occurred at a time when cutbacks were happening. There was a leveling out of support and teachers were losing prep time. The results were that teachers were under stress. They did not understand the program, the new content, and the new philosophy. . . . It was a small minority of teachers who liked the curriculum. . . . Teachers wanted more structure, control and material. (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981)

Horvath also described the resistance of many Alberta teachers to the 1971 program. He stated:

> I remember trying to support this curriculum and finding it extremely difficult because of the negative reactions of teachers. It was obvious to me that the new program was based on the idea that teachers should make these decisions, and I still believe in that, but you have to be in a certain place in your development as a classroom teacher to be able to make those decisions. . . . So I think the majority of teachers wanted to have a little more structure. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

Jack Langford, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, discussed the frustration that teachers experienced in dealing with the autonomy of the 1971 program. He stated:

> I met with many frustrated groups of teachers who did not know how to deal with the freedom they had been given. Teachers weren't ready for autonomy. Only a handful were ready and able to deal with it. (Personal Interview, December 21, 1981)

The result of this teacher confusion regarding the 1971 program or their rejection of the new curriculum was that the new program was not being successfully implemented in Alberta social studies classrooms. Chamberlin described the feedback that the Department of Education was receiving in terms of implementation of the 1971 program. He stated:

> I know that people in Alberta Education like Ledgerwood were getting letters that said, "That's a good idea, but it won't work." . . . He was doing workshops all over the province and faced teachers on a daily basis trying to get teachers to use the program and it was increasingly clear that teachers were not using the program. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981)

Mullen, in his role as a social studies consultant in Calgary, also discussed the lack of implementation of the 1971 program. He stated:

> The program wasn't being implemented. . . . Working as a consultant, it was next to impossible to do the job. In fact, lots of people didn't care what the government said they had to do anyway. That was a tremendously popular view. . . . I agreed with the program's intent and I saw good people doing good things with the program but, unfortunately, they were too few and far between. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

With the release of The Downey Report in 1975 which confirmed the lack of implementation of the 1971 program in Alberta social studies classrooms, the revisions to that program began. One of the

unique features of the social studies curriculum revision was the attempt to broaden the input from the various stakeholder groups into the curriculum development process. Torgunrud commented on this process:

> The involvement in the field was increased. The program was sent out for broad reaction . . . [to] overcome some of the shortcomings of the 1971 curriculum. The involvement by so many people was an innovation. We've had curriculum committees before, but those committees did their work in relative isolation. . . . The 1970's saw where we blew things wide open and we said, "We'll develop curriculum in a fishbowl." (Personal Interview, February 2, 1982)

As various drafts of the social studies curriculum revisions were prepared and written, meetings were held all over the province to obtain feedback on the curriculum revisions. These meetings were attended by Ledgerwood, members of the SSCCC and/or social studies consultants who would report back to the SSCCC with a summary of the reactions received (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). Bob Johnson, Consultant with the Department of Education, talked about the process of garnering reactions to the curriculum revisions:

> Where I was (Zone 1), groups were identified through our regional office and through the local jurisdictions and then they were invited to react. The groups included students, teachers, administrators, parents and Local Advisory Councils. (Personal Interview, December 16, 1982, revised through personal correspondence, August 10, 1982)

The summaries of those "reaction meetings" help to provide some insights into the views held by teachers regarding increased structure. A sampling from those "reaction meetings" follows. (All samples are taken from the summaries of the reaction meetings unless otherwise stated.)

1. September 17, 1976—Edmonton Public School Board Junior High Meeting

This meeting called for restricting the number of units and core references. The meeting asked the Department of Education to provide more "thou shalt's."

2. October 21, 1976—Calgary Public

The meeting called for the development of specific units and not just general topics in the study of Canada.

3. November 26, 1976—Edmonton Public School Board Junior High Meeting

The meeting advocated the setting out of specific prescription, the setting out of a time frame for the study of topics, and the need to designate primary themes for each grade.

4. March 21, 1977—Zone 1 School System

At this meeting, the general consensus of teachers was a demand for more prescription although there were a few exceptions. They wanted prescribed content, textbooks, and objective exams.

5. March 21, 1977—Grande Prairie: Teachers' South Peace Convention Area

Teachers asked that content be prescribed. The general consensus seemed to support prescription at the provincial level.

6. March 21, 1977—Ridgevalley School

The view expressed was that prescription was a must.

7. March 22, 1977—Grande Prairie Principals and Superintendents

The meeting of this group stressed the ideas of "back to the basics" and called for even more prescription.

8. April, 1977—Sundre, Alberta

There were some supporters of the 1971 program, but the sizable majority of teachers welcomed added structure (Correspondence, Ledgerwood to Dean Wood, Sundre, April 13, 1977).

9. May, 1977—Fort Vermilion School Division #52: School Administrators Association

A resolution passed by this group of school administrators called for increased prescription (Correspondence, Ledgerwood to Martin Goerzen, Department Superintendent, Fort Vermilion School Division, May 31, 1977).

10. 1977—Carstairs

Teachers were willing to accept more structure (Correspondence, Mary Anne Sheehan, Carstairs to the Curriculum Branch, 1977).

11. 1978—Bonnyville

There were concerns expressed that, at the upper elementary level, themes were too general and topics needed to be more specific.

12. 1978—Iron River

Teachers in Iron River requested that there be more detail in themes because they were too wide open and general.

13. 1978—High School Meeting: M.H.S.D. #76, M.H.S.C. #4, County of Newell, County of 40 Mile, Brooks

The meeting was encouraged by the specific nature of the draft program where a body of knowledge was specified. The group did caution that the program should not be allowed to become too narrow or prescriptive.

14. 1978—Division III: Brooks, County of Newell, County of 40 Mile

The meeting requested that objectives be better defined.

15. 1978—Division II: Brooks, County of Newell, County of 40 Mile

Requests were made for more specific topics and themes and for more specific knowledge objectives at each grade level.

16. 1978—Division I: Brooks, County of Newell, County of 40 Mile

The view expressed at this meeting was that the knowledge objectives were too general and that teachers wanted specific objectives. This made it easier for teachers to evaluate.

17. 1978—Medicine Hat

The reaction of teachers to the interim draft of the social studies curriculum was that there should be more specific content and knowledge objectives and that a common core of references was needed.

From this sampling of teacher reaction, it appears that teachers in the majority favoured more structure and more prescription in the social studies curriculum. There did not appear to be a strong

demand for teacher in-service which had been recommended in The Downey Report.

Crowther commented on the teachers' views that emerged from the "reaction meetings" held with teachers throughout Alberta. He stated:

> Doug [Ledgerwood], in particular, and with the help of regional office consultants, went across the province and presented all these drafts to various groups of teachers . . . and it seemed to me that always the reaction was the same: "Yes, there are things in here that we like, the rationale seems fair enough, but there's still not enough content." . . . A lot of people were saying, "I can't work with this at all unless it's more detailed." (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Even when the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition was released in December, 1978, some teachers still criticized it for its lack of prescription. Horvath stated:

> In my work with teachers as a consultant, that was the feeling of teachers that they wanted more guidance and more prescription. The said, "This (1978 Draft) moves quite a way towards greater specification and it helps to have a sort of jumping off place," but this document still wasn't adequate because they continued to be troubled by the fact that the teacher down the hall could be teaching the same program, but was using totally different content. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

The call for increased structure in the curriculum went hand in hand with the demand for more specific resources. Horvath stated:

> There had to be a relationship here. If you have a very flexible curriculum, you have to leave the resources flexible as well . . . [Superintendents and assistant superintendents] wanted more guidance in what to purchase. Teachers did too. In urban schools they're faced with the same problem the superintendent is. There isn't enough money to buy all the different resources and they are concerned that their students are using one set of materials while at the same grade level down the hall or in the next town another class was using a totally different set of materials and that caused some uneasiness. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

Although the majority of teachers appeared to support more

structure in the social studies, there was a minority group of teachers who spoke out against increased prescription. Teachers in attendance at the reaction meeting held with the Calgary Separate School System cautioned that if the two-thirds time became more structured, then the one-third time was even more necessary to maintain the flexibility in the program (Summary of Reaction Meetings, Calgary, October 21, 1976). Crowther, in a memo to Torgunrud, also reported that a meeting held with teachers in Calgary advised the Department of Education that because of the increased prescriptiveness, the new social studies was imposing conformity on Alberta students and was completely over-stepping its area of responsibility (Memo, Crowther to Torgunrud, December 18, 1978). Some of the people interviewed also held the view that high school social studies teachers were fairly satisfied with the 1971 program, with major dissatisfaction coming from the ranks of elementary and junior high teachers (Mullen, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Carter stated:

> Elementary teachers were saying we want more structure and guidance in terms of materials. High school teachers were pretty happy and junior highs were very much in between. (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982)

In most cases, however, the individuals interviewed in this study categorized the majority of teachers, at all levels of instruction, as supporting more structure in the social studies curriculum.

The teachers' dissatisfaction with the 1971 program spilled over and affected other groups like students, teachers, and school boards. Badger stated:

> This frustration gets transmitted to kids and to parents; and, teachers came under a lot of flak for the program. (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981)

Some members of school boards also reported dissatisfaction. One example was Trustee Binder from the Edmonton Public School Board who called for changes to the social studies curriculum partly based on the feedback teachers were giving to him. An article in the Edmonton Journal stated:

> At a staff meeting at Jasper Place Composite High School, the social studies department overwhelmed him with their dissatisfaction with the social studies program. They felt the guidelines are too wide and they want firmer ones. (Francis in the Edmonton Journal, March 24, 1975, p. 14)

Badger, as supervisor of social studies for the Edmonton Public School Board, came under pressure from board members because of the nature of the social studies program. He stated: "I came under a lot of flak at school board meetings" (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981).

The reasons for teachers' rejection of the 1971 social studies program varied. The whole philosophical basis of the social studies curriculum had changed with the introduction of the new program; some teachers were philosophically opposed to the program (Downey, 1975, p. 6) while others lacked an understanding of it (Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981). Other problems were experienced because teachers had difficulty in reading and understanding what was in the curriculum guide (Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982). Some teachers lacked the time, expertise or resources to deal with the new program (Langford, Personal Interview, December 21, 1981; Schreiber, Personal Interview, December 14, 1981). Others did not know how to proceed without a textbook. Financial constraints were also faced by teachers making it difficult to purchase the large number of resources required to implement the 1971 program (Short, Personal

Interview, December 10, 1981; Horvath, Personal Interview, November 24, 1981). Other teachers were not ready to handle the 1971 program psychologically and pedagogically (Langford, Personal Interview, December 21, 1981). All of these diverse reasons resulted in a large number of teachers in Alberta expressing dissatisfaction with the 1971 social studies curriculum with its emphasis on teacher autonomy and flexibility. These teachers were asking for more direction and more structure in the social studies program.

The Provincial Government

Decentralization

The early 1970's saw a commitment on the part of the provincial government to decentralize curriculum decision making (Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, January 29, 1974). This was demonstrated in a number of ways. In 1970, the new School Act came into effect which granted ". . . greater freedom and more responsibility by the Department [of Education] to school boards and to teachers (Korteweg, 1972, p. 212). In 1971, a new social studies program was introduced into Alberta schools which decentralized many aspects of curriculum decision-making (Korteweg, 1972, p. 213). In 1971, Ministerial approval was given to grant a 50-50 split for the final mark in social studies and biology. Fifty percent was to be determined by a Department of Education external examination and fifty percent of the final mark was transferred to the classroom teacher (Korteweg, 1972, p. 200). A similar arrangement was already in existence for French and English (Korteweg, 1972, p. 213). In 1973, departmental examinations were

totally abandoned which again demonstrated a commitment to decentralization. Korteweg (1972) discussed the ministerial decision stating:

> With the changed nature of the social studies program, local decision making had decentralized curriculum to the extent that a centralized external examination was no longer in tune with this trend. (p. 213)

In 1975, the Canadian Studies Resource Units were undertaken which represented a move to decentralize the curriculum development process (Sabey, Personal Interview, January 7, 1982).

In March, 1974, a provincial conference on "Curriculum Decision-Making in Alberta" was held in Red Deer, Alberta. The conference was hosted by the Curriculum Branch in cooperation with other branches of the Department of Education, the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA) and the Alberta School Trustees' Association (ASTA). There were one hundred and sixty-five participants at the conference—half were practicing teachers and the remainder included parents, students, Departmental personnel, trustees, ATA officials and university representatives.

The purpose of the conference was two-fold:

a. to decide who should make what curricular decisions and how they should make them.

b. to formulate recommendations in order to clarify the curricular roles of various stakeholders in education. (Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, April 19, 1974)

Ledgerwood identified four key recommendations resulting from the conference. These were:

a. structures be established to enable input from all stakeholder groups into the curriculum development process—teachers, parents, students, local school systems, Department of Education.

b. the broad goals of education be set by the Department of Education to reflect society's view of desired educational outcomes.

c. the necessary resources (e.g. time, money, expertise) be provided to facilitate local curriculum development.

d. a clearing house be established to disseminate curriculum materials.

Ledgerwood concluded that the stakeholders in education wanted to share in the making of curricular decisions, but still wanted the Department of Education to provide leadership and resources in this area (Memo, Ledgerwood to Torgunrud, April 19, 1974).

The 1974 Red Deer Conference was considered highly successful (Memo, Torgunrud to Koziak, May 26, 1976), and people were optimistic that local school systems would pick up the challenge to do curriculum development (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981). However, the optimism was not to be sustained as a number of circumstances worked to deter those efforts to decentralize curriculum decision-making. Torgunrud identified two of these circumstances as:

a. the rejection of B Budget proposal to establish a one million dollar fund for the financing of local curriculum development projects.

b. the appointment of Ledgerwood to the position of Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies. (Memo, Torgunrud to Koziak, May 26, 1976)

Ledgerwood had been a key figure in the move to decentralize curriculum decision-making, and his appointment to other duties reduced the time that could be given to encouraging this process.

Ledgerwood identified another circumstance that hindered curriculum decentralization. This circumstance was teacher resistance to the process. Teachers felt they did not have the resources or the

time to devote to it (Ledgerwood, Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

As well, the more conservative trend in education identified earlier was gaining momentum and acted to deter the decentralization process. In 1977, Torgunrud noted in a letter to Dr. Jean Young of the University of Alberta that the demand for decentralization appeared to be reversing itself (Correspondence, Torgunrud to Young, October 31, 1977).

The decline in support for decentralization was reflected in the political arena. In 1977, the Minister of Education, Julian Koziak, spoke of the importance of legislating objectives and priorities for the education system:

> The decision which will be made is a decision of this Legislature and not a decision somewhere apart from the Legislature. To take away from that might lessen the effect of the goals, objectives and priorities we would hope to attribute to our elementary and secondary education system. (Hansard, 1977, p. 24 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 30)

Further articulation of the provincial government's policy of more central control over education decision-making occurred in 1978. Premier Lougheed took the position in the Alberta Legislature that there was a need to establish parameters for curriculum development by legislating goals and objectives for education. He stated:

> Frankly, at times I have felt apprehensive at the danger of not having such goals [of education and schooling] which leaves it beyond the scope of this Legislature, to the conclusions or diverse aspirations of the educational establishment in the province . . . to determine on an ad hoc basis what should be the basic course content and curriculum development of our educational system. It strikes me that it is clearly a rudderless situation for one of the very important jurisdictions of a provincial legislature, the area of education and public policy in education. (Hansard, 1978, p. 1189 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 29)

Lougheed noted that this initiative by the provincial government represented a departure from the traditional stance taken by the Alberta Legislature and other legislatures throughout Canada. He stated:

> It had, unfortunately, in our view, been a tradition in legislatures throughout Canada, and in the Alberta Legislature to a degree, to abdicate our responsibility to establish public policy in this area. I'm very pleased that we are embarking on this discussion today, to bring back where it should be the appropriate responsibility that rests on our shoulders and cannot be abdicated. (Hansard, 1978, p. 1190 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 30)

There was some negative response by educators to this government move of centralizing control of education in Alberta. This response was noted by Lougheed:

> Mr. Speaker, a few but not many educators, or I suppose representatives of the educational establishment in the province, have expressed some concern at the vision of government interference in this matter of education. I am glad that it's a small, not a large number of people who have held to that view, because I think it's disturbing. I would have thought that they would welcome this Legislative Assembly to be debating the question of what the goals of schooling and education would be. I think the vast majority do. (Hansard, 1978, p. 1189 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, pp. 30-31)

Support for "Basic" Education and Increased Specificity

The Premier

In late 1976, Premier Lougheed announced that he would be turning his personal attention to education to examine the quality of education and to assess if new curricula were needed (Adams in the Edmonton Journal, January 11, 1977, p. 16). He also identified the concern that the public in Alberta was raising about basic education.

> Mr. Lougheed said Albertans seem to be concerned that not enough emphasis is being placed on the basics in education including the ability to read and write. (Sinclair in the Edmonton Journal, December 29, 1976, p. 1)

The Minister of Education

In 1977, a statement was made by the Minister of Education supporting specificity in programs of study in the schools. As a result of this statement, Torgunrud sent a memo to Associate Directors of Curriculum, including Ledgerwood, and to chairpersons of Coordinating Committees stating that particular attention must be paid to the specificity of programs which currently existed or were being developed, and that mandatory and elective portions must be clearly identified. This was necessary so that communication with students, parents, and teachers could clearly define what is to be taught. As well, this would allow for greater correspondence between what was taught and what was tested (Memo, Torgunrud to Associate Directors of Curriculum, Chairpersons of Coordinating Committees, December 6, 1977).

Formation of MACOSA

The government's concern regarding student achievement was reflected in the formation of the Minister's Advisory Committee on Student Achievement in 1976. One of its primary functions was to look at Departmental exams and whether they should be re-introduced (Edmonton Journal, December 16, 1976, p. 26)

Speech from the Throne

On February 24, 1977, the Speech from the Throne suggested new directions for education in Alberta. It indicated a concern about basic education and student achievement:

> There will be a reassessment of the goals and objectives of our basic education system, and the priorities that should be given to certain goals and objectives. A shift in emphasis to basic skills may be indicated. Recommendations from members of the Assembly, the Curriculum Policies Board, the general public, and interest groups will be welcomed. The levels of achievement of our students will receive close scrutiny by the Minister's Advisory Committee on Student Achievement. Further consideration will be given to the place of provincial examinations in our educational system. (Hansard, 1977, p. 2 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 27)

The View from the Legislature

In 1977, the issue of what should constitute the goals of education was being debated in the Legislative Assembly. It appeared that:

> All the legislators who spoke in the 'goals' debate seemed conscious that the policies they were discussing reflected a tension between what they and others called 'progressive' and 'traditional' education philosophy. (Krawchenko, no date, p. 41)

A number of government members of the Assembly spoke out against "progressive" education including Dr. Ken Paproski who stated:

> . . . progressive education; the classroom where the teacher must not fail normal children if the student has not achieved an adequate level of achievement, because the poor student may feel rejected; the teaching of courses so they will be fun, so our students will not be discouraged.
>
> A generation where courses are geared to the lowest common denominator in a normal classroom [is] a serious concern, Mr. Speaker. A system which has taught many students that education can be attained even without effort. A system in which the teachers in large numbers are losing empathy from the public—not because they are not first-class professionals and teachers in fact, not because they are not well trained, but because they are part of these front-line workers who are really doing the job for us—and thank God for them—they are caught in the whirlwind of the system and in fact must receive the criticism as all of us do when we're in the front line, even as politicians.
>
> Mr. Speaker, a system, I suggest which has frustrated many teachers and causes them to quit because the teacher knows

> what in fact should be done. Yet he cannot carry out this task because the system has pushed him into that item. Finally, Mr. Speaker, a system has developed for the sake of progress, a so-called 'progressivist' which is in many ways diametrically opposed to the structured, traditional education system. . . . (Hansard, 1977, p. 1353 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 42)

The result of this concern over "progressive" education was to call for an emphasis on basic education. Paprowski addressed this issue stating:

> Mr. Speaker, we know what we're talking about when we talk about frills. And if we don't, maybe we should just review some of the 200 or 400 subjects taught in elementary and secondary education. I'm saying that the frills are unnecessary for normal students. They're great, but they're unnecessary. They're costly, Mr. Speaker. In some measure they add, as one member has indicated. I don't debate that; they do indeed add. But they're not necessary in the scheme of things. If you have too many frills, they damage the basic program because the basic programs become ineffective. The teacher hasn't the time. The student hasn't the time. He becomes frustrated and as a result doesn't do well. (Hansard, 1977, p. 1353 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, pp. 43-44)

Part of the increased concern about the lack of emphasis on the "basics" in Alberta education focused on a concern relating to the basic literacy of Alberta students. Government member Horsman spoke of this concern:

> . . . in regard to this question of literacy, I wish to say that my knowledge and my concern on this subject has been broadened immensely by the discussions that have taken place within our party. I don't want to be too terribly partisan on this subject. But it is significant that this subject was without question one of the basic concerns of the people who attended the policy conference held here in Edmonton last fall. In addition it received equal concern at the annual meeting of our party recently. The people attending these conferences and conventions are prepared, as I have never heard them before, to discuss the question of literacy in our school system. (Hansard, 1977, p. 1367 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 44)

Horsman went on to recount a story of his nephew who was unable to read by Grade three because phonics had not been taught to him.

Horsman's conclusion was:

> I think there is something wrong with our system when that is happening in the province of Alberta. All this took place here. So I urge members of the Assembly, and educators as well, to take a look at it. (Hansard, 1977, p. 1367 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 44)

Not all members of the assembly held the view that a return to "basic" education was desirable. Grant Notley, leader of the New Democratic Party, argued against this view stating:

> Mr. Speaker, the argument has been raised by a number of people that we have shifted too much from a traditionalist to a progressive approach to education. . . .
>
> Rather than our system in Alberta in 1977 being unbalanced in that we've moved far too much in the direction of the progressive as opposed to the traditional approach, I suggest that we have not a bad balance. . . . As one member of the Legislature, I want to say that in my judgment we have a pretty good balance to date. (Hansard, 1977, p. 1182 as quoted in Krawchenko, no date, p. 43)

However, Notley's views were not the view held by the government which leaned toward a return to "basic" education. Krawchenko (no date) summed up the government's view this way: ". . . the sentiment that there was something wrong with the pre-Lougheed education system persists, and the 'basics' movement continues to gather momentum" (pp. 44-45).

The Curriculum Policies Board

In December, 1975, the Minister of Education, Julian Koziak announced that a Curriculum Policies Board would be established to replace the existing Elementary and Secondary Curriculum Boards. (See pages 99-101 for further description.) All curricula being developed or revised were to be sent to the Curriculum Policies Board for scrutiny and approval before receiving Ministerial approval for

implementation in Alberta classrooms. The curricular decisions that would be made by the Curriculum Policies Board would have a significant impact on the development of the 1978 social studies program in Alberta. This section of the chapter will examine the policy directions taken by the Curriculum Policies Board. It will not outline all matters discussed at the meetings of the Curriculum Policies Board, but will examine those pertinent to the development of the 1978 social studies program.

September 28, 29, 1976 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

At the first meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board, the Minister of Education, Julian Koziak, gave greetings to the members of the board. In those greetings, he stated that the public was questioning education in Alberta, and he identified specific issues that faced education today noting that the era was different than a decade ago. Those issues that Koziak identified included those concerned with "basic" education such as the basic abilities of students in mathematics and language (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976).

At that same meeting, Ledgerwood, the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, presented a paper to the Curriculum Policies Board titled "The Social Studies and Related Areas: A Description Prepared for the Curriculum Policies Board, September 28-29, 1976" in which the current social studies curriculum was defined, the historical changes that had occurred in Alberta social studies were outlined, and the linkage between curriculum changes and changes in the broader social, political, and economic circumstances of the society was presented (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976).

A brief discussion on Alberta social studies ensued after Ledgerwood's presentation. Some board members noted the dissatisfaction with the educational system felt by certain sectors of the public. Curran noted that the universities were not satisfied with the students who were entering their faculties (CPB Minutes, September 28, 29, 1976) while Milner noted the public concern about student illiteracy (Ibid.). The discussion also included the role of valuing in social studies education. Berry questioned whether teachers were competent to teach value-centred curricula. He felt that, though they might not be competent to teach a value-centred curriculum, they could teach Canadian history (Ibid.). Curran stated that the Curriculum Policies Board would have to look at a social studies program that emphasized a valuing approach versus a history and civics approach to social studies.

November 1, 2, 1976 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

Revisions to four major subject areas were already in progress at the time of the formation of the Curriculum Policies Board. The subject areas were: elementary mathematics, junior high language arts, social studies, and secondary science. At its meeting of November 1, 2, 1976, the Curriculum Policies Board heard a report from each of these subject areas on the scope, direction, and progress of the revision. A brief outline of those reports follows.

Mathematics

The report noted that from 1974 to the present (1976), there had been increased demands for "accountability" and "back to the basics."

The revisions to the math program included a reduction in the scope of the program and a reduction in emphasis on symbolism, terminology, and abstract concepts (CPB Minutes, November 1, 2, 1976).

In a discussion of the report, Curran emphasized that exact skills and knowledge had to be identified at each grade level (Ibid.).

Language Arts

The report on the revisions to the language arts program identified three major areas of change: Core concept was being identified with the scope of the program being more clearly and specifically given than in the previous curriculum. Although multiple listings of resources would still be provided, fewer categories of learning resources were being recommended. As well, recommendations were being provided for specific approaches or methodology to be used in the curriculum (Ibid.).

In the discussion, Brilz expressed the view that the language arts program was moving away from an emphasis on basic skills. The Curriculum Policies Board as a whole raised the concern of teachers for more prescription (Ibid.).

Social Studies

The report noted that the public push for more manifest treatment of Canadian history and geography had resulted in emphasizing a different balance between analytic thinking and valuing (Ibid.). A time line for revisions to the social studies program was also presented. A "master plan" outlining more comprehensive changes to the social studies curriculum would be submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board

in January, 1977. During 1977 and the Spring of 1978, support materials would be developed. The new program including teaching/learning resources, teaching/learning strategies, outlines of grade level objectives and units plans would be available in April, 1978, and would be ready for use in the schools in September, 1978 (Ibid.).

Ledgerwood, in a verbal presentation to the board at this meeting, noted that, while competing value systems still existed in our society, there was growing support for traditional values, for excellence, and for a lifestyle that enabled people to do more with less (Ibid.). He raised four questions that he felt the Curriculum Policies Board should consider in their considerations of the revisions to the social studies program. These were:

1. the valuing orientation of the social studies program.
2. the perceived threat of the social studies program to the free enterprise system.
3. the question of local autonomy versus provincial control over selection of resources and study topics, and the establishment of achievement standards.
4. the dangers associated with a problems-centred curriculum, particularly alienation and despair. (Ibid.)

Concern re Teacher Developed Curriculum

Wagner, a member of the Curriculum Policies Board, argued that curriculum guides that give freedom to teachers were frustrating to those teachers who lacked the time or inclination to develop curriculum. Therefore, curriculum guides should be specific enough so that teachers would not have to develop curriculum (Ibid.).

December 16, 17, 1976 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

Social Studies

A report titled "Report to Curriculum Policies Board Concerning Revisions to the Alberta Social Studies Curriculum" was presented at the December 16, 17, 1976 meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board. The report stated that the SSCCC had prepared three drafts of the revised social studies program and had modified these drafts on the basis of reactions obtained by meeting with eight groups of teachers. The result of these modifications was Draft #4 of the social studies program which was being submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board for reaction and direction (CPB Minutes, December 16, 17, 1976). As well, the report stated that a seminar was being planned for early 1977 which would solicit input from ten parents (including ASTA representatives), ten non-specialist teachers, ten specialist social studies teachers, ten social studies supervisors, and ten university professors—five from the Faculty of Education and five from other faculties (Ibid.).

The major feature of the revisions was to strike a balance between providing more direction to teachers and students who needed it, and providing flexibility to those teachers and students who wanted to develop their own program (Ibid.). The report stressed that the added structure and prescription was not to discourage the autonomous curriculum development that was occurring in Alberta social studies or to stifle creativity, but was designed for those teachers and members of the public who were asking for greater clarity in terms of methodology, content and objectives in Alberta social studies (Ibid.).

The report put forward the recommendation that the Curriculum

Policies Board recommend to the Minister of Education that he approve in principle the social studies curriculum as outlined in Chapter 1 of Draft #4. As well, the recommendation called for the gaining of Ministerial approval to develop support materials for the social studies program (Ibid.).

The decision taken by the Curriculum Policies Board on this recommendation was to defer a decision on the social studies revisions until a further meeting. A decision by the Curriculum Policies Board would not be made until May 5, 6, 1977. In the meantime, though, decisions would be made by the Curriculum Policies Board in the other subject areas, and these decisions would make their impact felt on future social studies curriculum development. This section will examine these significant curriculum decisions in the three subject areas of language arts, science, and mathematics.

Science

The report noted that the current science curriculum guide did not provide enough direction (Ibid.) and that the increased level of specificity that was proposed in the revisions should reduce the divergence that was presently occurring in science classrooms (Ibid.). The revisions sought to steer a middle ground between too much structure and too little direction (Ibid.).

In the discussion that ensued, the board expressed the concern that more development was required in clarifying the objectives (Ibid.).

Mathematics

At the meeting of December 16, 17, 1976, a discussion took place regarding the revisions to the mathematics program. Many members of the board sought assurances that ample opportunities for drill and computational skills would be provided and that core requirements with an emphasis on computation skills would be identified (Ibid.).

January 20, 21, 1977 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

Science Curriculum

The discussion regarding the science revisions continued at this meeting with Tolman, Associate Director of Curriculum for Science, expressing concern about the board placing greater emphasis on knowledge objectives (CPB Minutes, January 20, 21, 1977).

Weissenborn, a member of the Curriculum Policies Board, submitted a memo to all members of the Curriculum Policies Board expressing concern about the revisions to the science curriculum reflecting a shift away from the "basics" at a time when pressures from the general public and from business, industry, and secondary industry were for a return to the basics (Ibid.).

February 15, 16, 1977 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

The discussion that had occurred at the January 20, 21, 1977 meeting indicated the Curriculum Policies Board's dissatisfaction with the revisions to the science curriculum. Since that meeting the science curriculum committee had met and had made several changes in response to the board's concerns. These changes included:

1. negative connotations were avoided by changing the wording of objectives.

2. objectives were made more specific.

3. sub-concepts that were to be developed were specifically identified. (CPB Minutes, February 15, 16, 1977)

Instructions were given to the science curriculum committee by the Curriculum Policies Board to increase specificity in the program of study outlines for Biology 10/20 to fit with the detailed program of study for Biology 30.

In the discussion on the science curriculum, Milner noted the policy implications that had been set in the Board's deliberations of the revisions to the science curriculum. These included a greater content specificity and time allocations. She concluded that the Board should remain cognisant of these policies while dealing with other subject area revisions (Ibid.).

Mathematics

The approval of the mathematics program indicated certain policy directions which included a move towards greater prescription which provided teachers, administrators, and the public with a "sound basis" for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the program (Ibid.).

The inferred policy of the Curriculum Policies Board's approval of the elementary mathematics program included:

1. a mandatory core which include greater specificity of knowledge, skills, and attitudes

2. mandatory core components were to undergo periodic achievement testing with provincial norming

3. in-service be provided for the introduction of new courses. (Ibid.)

March 7, 8, 1977 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

Language Arts

The March 7, 8, 1977, meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board undertook a discussion of the revisions to the language arts program of studies. The report given to the Curriculum Policies Board indicated that the revisions had increased specificity, emphasized language skills and decreased emphasis on literature (CPB Minutes, March 7, 8, 1977).

The increased emphasis on language skills was supported by several board members (Ibid.); however, because of public concern regarding the language skills of students, the members of the Curriculum Policies Board held the position that the language arts curriculum should be even more specific (Ibid.). As a result, the Curriculum Policies Board passed a motion which stated that the language arts program was inconsistent with the programs of elementary mathematics and secondary science that had been previously approved by the Board. The Curriculum Policies Board returned the revisions to the language arts curriculum committee requesting that content and skills be specified in clear and explicit terms for specific grade levels (Ibid.).

May 5, 6, 1977 Meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board

Policy Trends Resulting from the Curriculum Policies Board's Deliberations of the Math, Science, and Language Arts Curricula

In a paper presented to the Curriculum Policies Board titled "Discussion Paper on Goals of Basic Education" by Curriculum Policies

Board member Weissenborn, he noted certain policy trends that were emerging as a result of the approval of the elementary mathematics program and the secondary science program, and the deferral of approval of the language arts program.

Weissenborn indicated that the board was aware of the "back to the basics movement" although it also remained aware of the diverse interests and abilities of students. The policy trends established by the Curriculum Policies Board included:

1. more detail be provided in programs of study and that more structure be included in curriculum guides to aid new teachers and those not specialized in that subject area. The structure provided should not, however, be too rigid so that experienced teachers could still experience some flexibility.

2. a clear distinction between optional and prescribed components of a program of study be provided and that there may be an increase in the prescribed content.

3. basic skills will receive more emphasis.

4. various programs will be more integrated.

5. the language used in the program of studies will be such that it will be understood not only by subject specialists but by parents and the public. (CPB Minutes, May 5, 6, 1977)

All Alberta curricula development had to be approved by the Curriculum Policies Board before it was sent to the Minister of Education for his formal approval and introduction into classrooms in Alberta. Two policy trends had been firmly established by the Curriculum Policies Board in approving or deferring approval of the revised curricula in the various subject areas. These trends were (1) an increase in specificity and prescription and (2) an emphasis on skills and knowledge and curriculum guides that reflected these priorities in clear and explicit terms, understandable to both the

specialist and non-specialist teacher and to the public. The deliberations of the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, Ledgerwood, and the members of the SSCCC would have to operate within these policy decisions as they worked on the revisions to the social studies curriculum.

The Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies and the Membership of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee

The Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies for the period of this study, 1975-1978, was Dr. C. D. Ledgerwood. Ledgerwood had played a central role in the development of the 1971 social studies program and had a strong commitment to it (Korteweg, 1972, pp. 209, 247, 256). Dever put it this way: "1971 was Ledgerwood's baby" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982).

Like Ledgerwood, most of the members of the SSCCC were supporters of the 1971 program. Crowther, in his characterization of the membership of the SSCCC, stated:

> . . . he [Ledgerwood] assembled people . . . who were an exceptionally talented and well renowned group of fairly liberal thinkers and these would be people who you would have regarded as amongst the extreme supporters of the 1971 program in philosophy. There were no reactionaries, fundamentalists, conservatives or historians in that group. . . . It could be an extremely significant factor of what happened in those three years [of curriculum development]. All those people had a very deep commitment to what they perceived as the consciousness raising and free spirit of the 1971 program. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Other individuals interviewed for this study agreed with Crowther's characterization of the membership of the SSCCC as being supportive of the aims of the 1971 program (Ledgerwood, Personal

Interview, November 4, 1971; Shortt, Personal Interview, December 10, 1981; Connors, Personal Interview, October 9, 1981; Mullen, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982; Dever, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Carter stated:

> The committee [SSCCC] members were expert social studies teachers who were happy with the freedom that existed with the 1971 program. (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982, revised through personal correspondence, September 1, 1982)

The first meeting of the newly formed SSCCC took place on January 30, 1976. At that meeting, the members of the SSCCC discussed The Downey Report at length and spent considerable time discussing the recommendations of The Downey Report. The result of the discussion was to agree with and support most of the nine recommendations of The Downey Report. The SSCCC postponed taking a decision on Recommendation #6 dealing with Canadian content in the social studies program, and although concurring with Recommendation #7, which advocated the deep involvement of students in the social studies program, expressed some reservation about it because of teacher resistance (SSCCC Minutes, January 30, 1976). Perhaps most significant of the recommendations accepted and supported by the members of the SSCCC was Recommendation #1 that advocated that the 1971 program be continued with certain refinements. This agreement regarding Recommendation #1 further served to demonstrate the support of the members of the SSCCC for the 1971 program.

During the course of 1976, the SSCCC undertook to identify and resolve some of the central issues involved in the revision of the 1971 social studies program. Most of the issues that were identified initially evolved from the SSCCC's consideration of The Downey Report

(Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981). Some of the issues that were identified were:

1. What should be the content and format of the handbook?
2. What is to be done with the one-third time?
3. What specific approaches should be taken to valuing?
4. What reference should be made to skill development?
5. Who should be available for proof-reading?
6. How should reaction panel members be selected?
7. How many handbooks should be published?
8. How are sample units going to be developed?
9. How are resource kits going to be developed?
10. How many ad hoc committees should be formed and what types of committees should they be? (SSCCC Minutes, May 31, June 1, 1976)

During 1976, the SSCCC passed several motions at their regular meetings which demonstrated their adherence to the major orientations of the 1971 social studies program. At their meeting of September 23, 24, 1976, the SSCCC supported the view that the ultimate and primary objective of the social studies program was valuing, and that skills and knowledge were to be supportive of the valuing component (SSCCC Minutes, September 23, 24, 1976). While there was support for values education in social studies, some members of the SSCCC expressed concern about the values clarification process found in the 1971 program (Van Manen, Personal Interview, October 22, 1981; Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981). Crowther stated:

> The first course I took in Wisconsin was from . . . Allan Lockwood. . . . The course alerted me to some very serious problems with values clarification and which in fact have surfaced since then. It became obvious to me that it was

> only a matter of time before the controversy that surrounded values clarification began to surface here. . . . It seemed to me from my work in Wisconsin and my associated with the Legislature, [the movement away from values clarification] was something we had to do. It was a very conscious kind of thing to cut the concerns off at the passage. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Carter also discussed some of the perceived deficiencies that he saw with the values clarification approach. He stated:

> The deficiencies of the values clarification approach started to become obvious. It was inclined to be a do-your-own-thing philosophy in which any opinion or position was considered as valid as another if the individual arrived at it using the valuing process. It was evident that most people associated with the development of the 1978 program were dissatisfied with the values component of the 1971 program and wanted it improved. (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982, revised through personal correspondence, September 1, 1982)

The SSCCC on December 1, 2, 1976, expressed their resistance to limiting the number of resources used, as these resources could then tend to dictate the program (SSCCC Minutes, December 1, 2, 1976). At that same meeting, the SSCCC reiterated the importance of maintaining flexibility in the program and rejected making the social studies program more specific by designating major and minor themes (Ibid.).

Connors talked about the feeling of the members of the SSCCC during this period. He stated:

> As to the underlying skills, knowledge, and values components, I almost think that we took for granted that we were going to keep still within the 1971 parameters when it came to those types of approaches. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Max Van Manen, former member of the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, commented on the SSCCC's view of curriculum making. He stated:

> We felt that the thing to do was to leave teachers with lots of autonomy, so there was lots of grass roots opportunity for curriculum making. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

Crowther held a similar view to the one expressed by Van Manen. He commented:

> It would be my perception that looking back that by and large they were free spirited, cream of the crop, well trained liberals who regarded things like textbooks, prescriptiveness, and content as interference in the professional role of the teacher. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther also added that The Downey Report which supported the major tenets of the 1971 program was used by the SSCCC and provided the guidelines for the revisions that were undertaken (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981).

The initial resolve of the membership of the SSCCC was to maintain the essential aspects of the 1971 social studies program.

During 1976, some members of the SSCCC were assigned the task of re-writing some aspects of the social studies program and then submitting their work to the full membership of the SSCCC for discussion. Again this work was generally in keeping with the framework of the 1971 program (Crowther, Personal Interview, October 6, 1981).

However, 1977 would see new forces set in motion which would bring significant changes to the social studies program, and which would set it in a direction of increased specificity. This section will examine the major forces acting on the SSCCC to bring greater specificity and structure to social studies in Alberta.

Influence of the Curriculum Policies Board

At the December 16, 17, 1977 meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board, Draft #4 of the revised social studies curriculum was presented to the Curriculum Policies Board for formal approval. At that meeting,

the members of the Curriculum Policies Board deferred consideration of the social studies proposal until a further date. The next time the Curriculum Policies Board would consider the revised social studies program would be May 5, 6, 1977. For this period of five months, there were no formal directives given to the SSCCC as to how the social studies curriculum revisions should proceed.

Yet, despite this lack of formal direction from the Curriculum Policies Board, many people cited the Curriculum Policies Board as having an impact on the deliberations of the SSCCC (Burley, Personal Interview, December 3, 1981; Mueller, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981; Horvath, Personal Interview, November 24, 1981; Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982). Members of the SSCCC were aware that the revisions to the social studies program had to obtain Curriculum Policies Board approval. They were also aware of the policy decisions being made in other subject area curriculum deliberations of the Curriculum Policies Board.

Connors discussed the influence of the Curriculum Policies Board on the SSCCC:

> In a way they were like a spectre. They were out there and somehow you had to go through the process of dealing with them. There was a lot of concern about the Curriculum Policies Board. We were aware of them all the time. . . . We certainly gave them a lot of power. We phrased things to meet with their perceived expectations. . . . We heard of other curriculum groups sending their curriculum to the Curriculum Policies Board and getting them sent back. . . . (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Mullen held a similar view stating: "They did become a reality as we worked. We would spend time wondering what they would think" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982).

Van Manen discussed the influence of the Curriculum Policies Board's decision regarding the language arts program revisions on the SSCCC:

> At the time we were getting the social studies package ready to submit to the Curriculum Policies Board, we heard the English program was sent back. They were told it wasn't specific enough and told to revise it. As a result, some of the stuff we came up with was more conservative than we would have wanted it to be. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

Ledgerwood discussed how the Curriculum Policies Board influenced the SSCCC without providing tight guidelines. He stated:

> The Curriculum Policies Board didn't really establish the kind of tight guidelines that would make a strong impact on the SSCCC. The SSCCC was conscious of what would gain approval of the Curriculum Policies Board, but at the same time, they weren't operating under strictures imposed by the Curriculum Policies Board. We had a consciousness that this was a body we were going to have to satisfy rather than here are the dictates. . . . The Curriculum Policies Board was not an entirely indirect influence but at no time did they come down and say you must have sixty percent Canadian content. That kind of directive never occurred. The regulatory or operational function of the SSCCC was consistent with policies set down by the Curriculum Policies Board, and in that sense there was a direct relationship. In terms of specifying any operational decision, there weren't [direct relationships]. (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981)

It would appear that the policy directions of the Curriculum Policies Board for more specificity made their impact felt on the deliberations of the SSCCC although no definite directives were provided to the SSCCC for the period December, 1976 to May, 1977.

Influence of Teachers

The SSCCC made a conscious effort to involve teachers in discussing the revisions that were being made to the social studies program. This "fishbowl" approach of gathering feedback from teachers was seen as a means of avoiding many of the problems associated with

the 1971 program (Torgunrud, Personal Interview, February 2, 1982).

Connors talked about the reaction meetings this way:

> I think they tried to get as wide a public as they could. . . . It was an effort to try to involve more people than just educators. An effort was made. I don't think it was made before. It was seen as breaking new ground. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Johnson (Personal Interview, December 16, 1981), Shortt (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981), Badger (Personal Interview, October 21, 1981) and Mueller (Personal Interview, November 25, 1981) stated that the members of the SSCCC took the reactions of teachers, to the various drafts of the curriculum, seriously although not all teachers were satisfied with the process. Horvath stated:

> The idea of taking the curriculum in its draft stage and getting reactions was a good one. How else are you going to involve the masses in curriculum development? But there was something terribly wrong with it all. One of the things that disappointed me was what eventually happened to our input. I recall Doug Ledgerwood coming to Calgary with a draft to get our reactions. We felt good about providing him with our criticisms and suggestions. He took down our ideas diligently, but the next time we saw the draft, we didn't see any of our ideas in there because what had happened was that he took that draft up to Grande Prairie and got reactions from teachers there and each time he met with a new group of teachers the draft changed. . . . I have not met anyone else who was particularly satisfied as a result of this process and it may be because they never really saw the result of their input in the draft. (Personal Interview, November 24, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 13, 1982)

There is also evidence to suggest that the members of the SSCCC resisted the feedback that was coming to them from the field. The members of the SSCCC were strong supporters of the 1971 program, but the feedback from teachers was asking for more direction and more prescription—demands that ran contrary to the major thrusts of the 1971 social studies program.

Crowther discussed the feedback that teachers were giving to

the SSCCC and the reaction of the SSCCC to this feedback:

> Doug [Ledgerwood] in particular and with the help of the regional office consultants went across the province and presented all these drafts to various groups of teachers and in some cases to students, and it seemed to me that always the reaction was the same: "Yes, there are things in here that we like . . . but there's still not enough content." Now Doug himself was fairly reluctant to impose any major strand of content on what was there and he viewed overly prescriptive content as something he disagreed with. . . . It was a hell of a problem [for the SSCCC]. . . . And I think that in some ways they rejected and they resisted the feedback that was coming from teachers. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther's view is supported by a statement of the SSCCC which put forward the position that although the SSCCC felt that the views and reactions of the public were important, the SSCCC must continue to lead and not follow (SSCCC Minutes, April 12, 13, 1977).

However, the initial resistance of the SSCCC to the feedback it was receiving from teachers began to erode as the pressure increased. Carter stated: "The SSCCC members were getting feedback from their colleagues which resulted in a wearing down process because people wanted spcificity" (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982, revised through personal correspondence, September 1, 1982).

Dever discussed why the initial resolve of the SSCCC began to erode and the compromise that the SSCCC made. He stated:

> As we started to develop the curriculum, it became obvious that the people on the committee did not reflect what the people in the field wanted. Teachers were having a difficult time with 1971. Do you keep with ideals that weren't working in the classroom, or do you try and reach the teacher to cope? We made a conscious decision that would be least restrictive to a competent social studies teacher, but the most help to a good generalist. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

Van Manen talked about the contradictory pressures that the SSCCC faced and how the feedback that was being received from teachers meshed with the policy directions being established by the Curriculum Policies Board. He stated:

> There was feedback from consultants, or Ledgerwood or Crowther who would have done workshops or spoken to teachers, and feedback would come to the SSCCC. The pressures were contradictory. We felt that the thing to do was to leave teachers with lots of autonomy, so there was lots of grass roots opportunity for curriculum making. But much of the pressure was for more materials, for more "tell us what to do." The complainers we heard. The good teachers were not feed-backing to us. This fits very well with the mandate that the Curriculum Policies Board had for more prescriptiveness, materials and objectives spelled out. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

The result of this feedback was to increase the specificity of the curriculum (Dever, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982; Van Manen, Personal Interview, October 22, 1981) and to make curriculum guides simpler (Mullen, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Another result was to establish a shorter list of learning resources for teachers.

Up until January, 1977, the SSCCC had resisted pressure to identify a limited number of resources at each grade level. At their meeting of December 1, 2, 1976, they rejected the concept of limited resources because of the tendency for them to dictate the program (SSCCC Minutes, December 1, 2, 1976). However, by January, 1977, the SSCCC had given in to this pressure. At their meeting of January 12, 13, 1977, the SSCCC passed a motion recommending that the Curriculum Policies Board approve a list of discount resources which would contain a maximum of ten titles per grade and which would be consistent with the social studies program. In doing this, they stressed that

social studies was not to follow a textbook approach and that this motion did not ratify such an approach (SSCCC Minutes, January 12, 13, 14, 1977).

One of the forces exerting pressure for prescribed texts was Alberta teachers. They wanted assistance in selecting suitable resources because of financial constraints and their need to purchase proven material (SSCCC Minutes, January 12, 13, 14, 1977).

Carter talked about teachers' demands for limited resources. He stated: "Our colleagues were asking for resources. We gave them lists they could use" (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982).

Connors described the deliberations of the SSCCC over the issue of textbooks:

> One example we sent back and forth was over the issue of the textbook. I think that we compromised on the textbook. I think our compromise may have given people some anguish. I don't know. But we did come to the conclusion that there did seem to be a demand for texts. People seemed to need something to hang on to. . . . So we agreed. If it helps them and the materials are available, then maybe we should recommend a text. . . . Teachers were concerned because of content so we did in a sense re-introduce the textbook but that no book could remain on the list for more than a three year period unless . . . the committee . . . could find nothing to replace it. . . . (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

The influence of teachers was also seen in the number of drafts of the curriculum that were written and revised. By the time the Curriculum Policies Board considered the social studies proposal, there had been nine drafts of the curriculum, and before the curriculum was introduced into Alberta schools in late 1978, there were sixteen drafts in all. Ledgerwood described the impact of this teacher input: "On the basis of that input, various drafts were prepared and written" (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981).

The impact of teachers on the curriculum was substantial although it generally ran counter to the views of the members of the SSCCC. Connors talked about the impact of teachers on the SSCCC:

> We tried to present interim drafts to groups of administrators, teachers, parents, and high school students to get their response. There was a large number of people who attended the meetings. We tried to respond to some of the criticisms of these people—that's the major reason why there are so many interim editions. . . . The major concerns that teachers had we tried to cater to. They had a direct influence on the curriculum that was produced. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Influence of School Boards

School boards had an influence on the SSCCC in terms of them agreeing to identify a limited number of resources for classroom use. Their influence did not singularly influence the SSCCC, but their pressure coupled with similar pressures from other forces made their impact on the SSCCC. Connors described the process this way:

> I think you get pressures from all sorts of directions. . . . Someone will bring up a point . . . that school boards are concerned about this issue because a text gets a forty percent discount. School boards are beginning to say in some areas that we have to approve material before it enters the classroom. Those types of pressures don't seem very big as we sit here talking, but they have a subtle type of pressure on you. . . . The accumulation of these things finally makes you vote in favour of a textbook. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Ledgerwood also noted in his submission to the Curriculum Policies Board on February 2, 3, 1978 that the school boards were exerting strong pressure and that if changes were not made, some of the larger school systems might undertake their own revisions to the social studies program (CPB Minutes, February 2, 3, 1978).

Influence of the "Back to the Basics" Movement

As the SSCCC continued their work on developing the new social studies curriculum, the "back to the basics" movement was beginning to gain momentum in Alberta. This growing force weighed on the deliberations of the SSCCC, and their initial resolve to maintain the major tenets of the 1971 program began to erode. Crowther discussed how the impact of the "back to the basics" movement had put pressures on teachers who, in turn, pressured the SSCCC:

> I think that by and large the "back to the basics" movement had created such a threat to teachers at this time, and their jobs were so complicated because of not having resources to work with that they probably had very legitimate demands. That demand for more prescriptiveness was something that was broadly based. . . . There were some others around who were coping with the 1971 program, but there was a very large number who were not. . . . Those people would have been such a substantial number that the SSCCC would have had to go by their wishes. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Carter related how the educational pendulum was swinging back with the growth of the "back to the basics" movement. He stated:

> The "back to the basics" movement had an impact. Generally it was a movement from "do your own thing" to societal expectations, from child-centred to subject-centred. Education was following the time. . . . We had run the gamut of child-centred, "do your own thing," teacher as curriculum-builder philosophy, which never seemed to work back in the classroom. The pendulum was swinging back. (Personal Interview, February 18, 1982)

Influence of the Media

Some sectors of the Alberta media picked up on the "back to the basics" movement, giving it broad coverage or actively endorsing its philosophy. This coverage by the media coupled with pressure exerted by other forces in society influenced the SSCCC. Ledgerwood stated:

> The resolution [of the SSCCC] that existed in 1975 wears down. Input and media campaigns impacted on members of the committee. It brought about a mellowing [where the SSCCC began to say], "OK, if that's what they want, then let's give it to them." . . . The media was calling our attention . . . to the "back to the basics" movement. A right wing political philosophy was coming into dominance. Local manifestations were Alberta Report, letters, editorials or articles in the Journal. . . . It was a broad societal movement which had its local manifestations that had an impact on committee members. (Personal Interview, November 14, 1981)

Dever talked about the influence of the media as being "unconscious. But they were there and they had an influence—an indirect influence. The transition [that occurred in the SSCCC] has to be an influence" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982).

St. John's Edmonton Report was seen by some of the individuals interviewed as having both an impact on the SSCCC, and the public (Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981; Stiles, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981; Dever, Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Parsons talked about the influence of St. John's Edmonton Report on public opinion owing to its wide readership. He stated that it was ". . . a magazine that every dentist's office, doctor's office, Volkswagon garage has, so people sit there and read it. Whether it's good or not, it's always there" (Personal Interview, January 20, 1982).

Influence of the Provincial Government

Members of the provincial government responded to the "back to the basics" movement by supporting some of its major components. Shortt described it this way:

> The government has to respond to the people in its province. The 1978 curriculum was a response to the public demand for more Canadian content, more prescription, and less autonomy

> for teachers. The provincial government responded to this. (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981)

The influence of the government was felt by the SSCCC (Mueller, Personal Interview, November 25, 1981), although it was not a direct influence in that the SSCCC did not receive any specific directives from the politicians. Members of the SSCCC saw their influence as being a more subtle or indirect one (Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982). Mullen put it this way:

> One considers it [the politicians' view]. That's for sure. One is aware of it. Those individuals [of the SSCCC] were pretty strong willed. But they were pragmatists who knew that you can't go right out on a limb that's going to be sawed off. They [the politicians] played a role through the press. I didn't feel it through a line of authority. Just an influence that we're aware of. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

Connors noted the influence of the government stating:

> Government always says it reflects the people. Once they take direction, the Department of Education, of which we [the SSCCC] were a part, then had to cater to the directions in which politicians were saying that education must go. You were always aware of them though they were well away from us in a sense. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Van Manen also discussed the political influence. He stated:

> On SSCCC, he [Lougheed] was often mentioned: "We all know what Lougheed wants." It was seen as a challenge to us. The message is never given straightforward, but you know what your boss really wants. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

Chamberlin saw the politicians exerting an influence through their choice of appointments made to the Curriculum Policies Board. He stated:

> There was more of a role played by the politicians such as the choice of appointments on the Curriculum Policies Board. The Board was a politically appointed Board answerable to the Minister. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1981)

Influence of The Downey Report

During this period when other forces were increasingly asking for more specificity, the findings of The Downey Report continued to be used to support the move in this direction (Van Manen, Personal Interview, October 22, 1981; Johnson, Personal Interview, December 16, 1981; Badger, Personal Interview, October 21, 1981). Horvath stated: "It did lend itself toward providing more structure in the program" (Personal Interview, November 25, 1981).

Connors talked about how The Downey Report was interpreted by some individuals and groups. He stated:

> It seems to me that because of the recommendations or the type of criticism that Downey levelled that the position that was taken was one interpretation or one way to solve . . . some of the problems that Downey seemed to expose. There were many alternative routes that could have been taken but they weren't for a number of reasons. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Among those reasons would be the forces identified earlier who exerted pressure for a more structured and specific curriculum.

Direction Taken by the SSCCC

The result of these pressures and the societal context in which the SSCCC was operating acted to erode the initial resolve of the SSCCC to maintain the 1971 program. Ledgerwood described the process this way:

> If you look at the 1971 curriculum there was an economic buoyancy that gave rise to a permissiveness and a willingness to provide a freedom to learn. By 1975 that was weakening. By 1978, it had changed. In 1975, they could be quite resolute; they could do so because society was supportive. By 1978, the society was swinging to the right. And members of the committee were aware of this swing . . . so committee members changed. They weren't out of step. It wasn't them that changed but the society and the schools, and teachers, and government officials. They were reactive not reactionary. (Personal Interview, November 4, 1981)

Both Connors and Dever characterized the members of the SSCCC as being "out of step" with the times. Dever stated:

> Yes, we were out of step. But not out of step with activist members of the Social Studies Council, but certainly with teachers in the field, especially the generalist who had to teach social studies. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

Connors stated:

> When I first went on the Committee, I felt we were in a fairly liberal type of environment, but as we moved on, it became noticeable that there was a much more conservative element appearing in education. So much so that we became out of touch with the education mood of the time. . . . We were out of step with the time. Many of our ideas that we believed in were not believed in by other forces, e.g., society, accountability movement, return of examinations, back to the basics movement. Educationally, we weren't out of step, but forces around us were going in a different direction and we were no longer the vogue. And they were much more powerful than we were. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Van Manen discussed how the SSCCC attempted to go against the forces that were demanding more structure without complete success. He stated:

> In order to be a pedagogically responsible committee, it had to go against the grain. Trends to the basics, to clamping down, to centralization—the committee had to see that this was a trend and that we had to fight it. I think we were quite aware of it. We were trying to hold back on those things as much as we could, although the changes turned out to be much more than we thought we could permit. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

Johnson talked about the SSCCC's reaction to the changes that were occurring in the social studies program. He stated:

> The SSCCC talked about bigger issues: How much prescription? How much structure? With each edition more of the SSCCC members were ready to put on black arm bands. (Personal Interview, December 16, 1981, revised through personal correspondence, August 10, 1982)

One of the results of this situation of erosions to the 1971 program was the resignation of Marilyn Shortt from the SSCCC. She described the reasons for her resignation:

> I began to see that I had put in everything that I possibly could. I felt that the erosions had reached such an extent that I couldn't really contribute. It wasn't worth the frustration and the effort and that somebody else needed to come in with new ideas. My resignation is a reflection of: committees are better if you turn over people on a more regular basis. Too much input by the same people—they have too much at stake. You're not open to new ideas. I was frustrated that the erosions from the original authenticity of the program were getting to be far too many. I felt they were getting more than I could legitimately support. (Personal Interview, December 10, 1981)

The Consideration of the Social Studies Revisions by the Curriculum Policies Board, May, 1977

Despite the changes that were made to the 1971 curriculum, many aspects of the 1971 social studies curriculum were retained. While the SSCCC did bow to pressure to make the social studies curriculum more structured, the curriculum revisions that were submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board contained many significant aspects of the 1971 program. The traditions that had been established in Alberta social studies by the 1967 Conference and the commitment by the membership of the SSCCC to the 1971 program made it possible for components of that curriculum to continue on. This was reflected in the program proposal that was submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board on May 5, 6, 1977.

Social Studies Submission to the Curriculum Policies Board, May 5, 6, 1977

Ledgerwood, Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, and Crowther, Chairman of the SSCCC, attended the meeting to present the social studies submission. The submission of the SSCCC to the Curriculum Policies Board was an interim proposal, and sought interim approval by the Curriculum Policies Board. The reasons

for this request for interim approval included the following:

1. a few topics may have been inappropriate.
2. some value issues, topic descriptions, and themes needed more work.
3. the skills component needed further streamlining.
4. some of the generalizations may have lacked validity.
5. other incidental concerns such as a possible urban bias might exist. (Memo, Crowther, Associate Director of Curriculum Designate to Carter, Johnson, Schreiber, Toews, January 20, 1978)

The submissions from the SSCCC to the Curriculum Policies Board cited two major reasons for the changes in the Alberta social studies program. These were:

1. The Downey Report
2. requests from teachers and the public for prescribed Canadian content and more structured social studies curriculum. (Minutes of the Curriculum Policies Board, May 5, 6, 1977)

The submission noted that The Downey Report had recommended that all groups having an interest in the Alberta social studies curriculum be invited to participate in the revising and reassessing of the curriculum, and that this recommendation had guided the work of the SSCCC (Ibid.). As drafts of the new curriculum were developed by the SSCCC, they were submitted to various groups and individuals for reactions. Based on the reactions, revisions were undertaken by the SSCCC. These revisions were again submitted for reaction and subsequent revisions occurred again. This cycle continued until the point where Draft #9 was being submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board for approval (Ibid.).

The major characteristics of the social studies program being

submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board for approval were as follows:

1. a more even balance was struck among knowledge, skills and valuing objectives which was to have the effect of emphasizing the knowledge components of the program. (Ibid.)

2. the new program would have greater structure than the 1971 program. Each grade had specified knowledge and skill objectives, and prescribed topics and themes which were more strictly defined. As well, the one-third unstructured time was reduced to one-quarter time. (Ibid.)

3. detail was provided as to what was prescribed by the Minister of Education and what was to be decided at the local level. The Minister would prescribe:

   a. the goals and characteristics of the social studies curriculum

   b. expectations of both teachers and students

   c. topics and themes for the three-quarters structured time

   d. generalizations that students would learn at each grade level

   e. the general categories of skills that students were to learn at each grade level

   f. learning resources that would form a core for each grade level. (Ibid.)

   School boards, teachers, parents, and/or students would decide:

   a. topics and themes for the one-quarter unstructured time as well as case studies that could be used in studying the prescribed topics

   b. specific facts and concepts that would be learned for each class

   c. specific skills that would be learned in each class

   d. learning resources that could be used to supplement the list of core resources

   e. the teaching and learning strategies that would be used in each class. (Ibid.)

4. Canadian content and history and geography would receive greater emphasis. (Ibid.)

5. three to ten primary resources including single items and kits of print and non-print materials would be identified at each grade level and that these resources receive a forty percent discount. (Ibid.)

The submission noted that Draft #9 should bring some level of satisfaction to all concerned individuals and groups since it retained the essence of the 1971 curriculum while making changes that increased the structure of the program, gave greater emphasis to knowledge objectives, increased Canadian studies, as well as increasing studies in history and geography (Ibid.).

The Reaction of the Curriculum Policies Board to the Social Studies Submission

Prescription

Dr. J. Hrabi, member of the Curriculum Policies Board, noted that the requests from the field asking for more direction meant that detailed prescription could hardly be argued against (CPB Minutes, May 5, 6, 1977). Mrs. L. Milner, member of the Curriculum Policies Board, supported increased prescription, stating that core learnings should be learned at each grade level (Ibid.).

The reduction of the unstructured time from one-third to one-quarter time was supported by the Curriculum Policies Board. The Curriculum Policies Board requested that in the one-quarter unstructured time, materials related to the core program be made available, but that the option should exist for local areas to develop materials within the broad themes identified at each grade level (Ibid.).

Crowther, Chairman of the SSCCC, informed the Curriculum Policies Board that the SSCCC had plans to develop materials that would provide added structure. These included a series of monographs

which would outline specific strategies for implementation and resource units which would be self-contained (Ibid.).

Resources

Dr. Hrabi, of the Curriculum Policies Board, felt that although there was merit in narrowing the range of resources, the number of resources prescribed should not be limited to two or three as this would run counter to the program. As well, he raised the question of the types of problem the forty percent discount would create for the School Book Branch (Ibid.).

Several other members of the Curriculum Policies Board raised the point that school boards would find it important to have a forty percent discount on prescribed resources (Ibid.).

Ledgerwood replied that the School Book Branch supported the idea of prescribing social studies resources, and discounting them by forty percent. Ledgerwood noted that the limiting of resources would decrease flexibility in teaching the social studies program, but that in reaction meetings held throughout the province, there was almost unanimous support for a limited range of resources and a forty percent discount being applied to them. He also noted that some people supported the limiting of resources because this might assure greater implementation of the program (Ibid.).

The Curriculum Policies Board agreed that the range of resources should be limited, but did not resolve the issue of the forty percent discount. The Chairman of the Curriculum Policies Board requested that a report discussing the issues of pedagogical desirability and the practical reality of the forty percent discount

be brought to the Curriculum Policies Board (Ibid.).

Balance Among Knowledge, Skills, and Values Objectives

The members of the Curriculum Policies Board gave broad support to the continuation of the valuing orientation of the social studies curriculum. Several members of the board suggested that more emphasis be placed on the valuing component in order to widely promote its implementation (Ibid.).

Some concern was expressed by members of the Curriculum Policies Board that the valuing component of the social studies curriculum was not understood very well. Crowther responded to this by outlining plans to communicate the intent of the program to teachers and parents (Ibid.).

There was some debate among members of the board over which objectives should receive priority. In response to this, Ledgerwood suggested that support documents for the social studies curriculum be written to stress that valuing was the ultimate objective of the social studies program, but that knowledge and skills were crucial in the development of values. The board accepted Ledgerwood's proposal (Ibid.).

Canadian Content

Some differences among members of the Curriculum Policies Board emerged over the amount of Canadian content proposed in the social studies submission. There was general board support for the view that Canadian content be compressed into blocs to assure a greater degree of depth of study and continuity, rather than spreading it across the grades (Ibid.).

Social Action

Ledgerwood outlined the SSCCC's definition of citizenship which advocated active participation in community life. The members of the Curriculum Policies Board gave qualified support to the idea of students and teachers engaging in social action stating that the social action component should not involve a large amount of school time, and that the social action component should not be compulsory (Ibid.).

From the Curriculum Policies Board's discussion of the social studies submission, nine tentative policy statements emerged. These were:

1. Teachers should not have to spend a great deal of time in the role of curriculum developer; therefore, programs of study and resources should provide adequate structure.

2. Prescription and structure are not to be equated.

3. Value issues, generalizations, and skills at each grade level should be prescribed by the province.

4. Flexibility should exist in the provincial programs to allow school systems, schools, and teachers to adapt the program to the needs of the local area and the needs of individual students.

5. Students need experiences in resolving value dilemmas. Valuing should be grounded in knowledge and skills.

6. Both pedagogical and practical concerns should be considered in formulating a policy on learning resources.

7. Canadian content should not be spread piecemeal throughout the grades, but should be organized in concentrated blocs.

8. There must be an equitable balance among historical, contemporary, and futuristic studies, as well as local, Canadian, and global studies.

9. As long as social action is optional and does not occupy too much time, it should be encouraged. (CPB Minutes, May 5, 6, 1977)

The Reaction of the SSCCC to the Deliberations of the Curriculum Policies Board

At the May 11, 12, 13, 1977 meeting of the SSCCC, a report was given outlining the policy directions provided. As outlined at that meeting of the SSCCC, these policies were:

1. a structured approach would be used in social studies from Grades K-12.
2. objectives would be outlined at each grade level.
3. a smaller list of resources would be provided without a forty percent discount.
4. three-quarters time would be structured; one-quarter time would be unstructured.
5. there would be a balancing of knowledge, skill, and value objectives with valuing perhaps still receiving priority. The issues approach would be kept.
6. the one-quarter unstructured time would reflect the topics at each grade level. (SSCCC Minutes, May 11, 12, 13, 1977)

At this meeting of the SSCCC, concern was expressed about the role of the SSCCC in determining policy. The question was raised whether the SSCCC was a policy or working committee or a combination of both. Concern was expressed that although the SSCCC was basically a policy committee, Department of Education policy was being formulated without the knowledge or approval of the SSCCC. Again the question was raised as to what this all meant for the role of the SSCCC (Ibid.).

The discussion of changes that should be made to the social studies curriculum indicated the strong influence of the Curriculum Policies Board on the SSCCC. It was noted at the meeting that Curriculum Policies Board concerns and suggestions were to be referred to in the revisions to the curriculum (Ibid.).

Review by the Curriculum Policies Board of the Policy Directions Established for Social Studies

At its meeting of August 5, 1977, the Curriculum Policies Board reviewed the nine tentative policy statements that emerged from the meeting of May 5, 6, 1977 (see page 206). The policy statements (1 to 5) which dealt with structure, prescription and flexibility were discussed first. Curran questioned whether the flexibility allowed to local areas would enable local boards to neglect the program's structure. Wagner noted that there was considerable flexibility within the structured program, but that what was prescribed would influence the degree of flexibility. Curran stated that he supported a program that outlined specific core learning at each grade level. Torgunrud concluded that policy statements 1-5 increased structure and prescription in the social studies program, but still allowed for some flexibility at the local and classroom level (CPB Minutes, August 5, 1977).

Policy #6 which dealt with learning resources summed up the board's position. Hawkesworth put forward the position that the present resource policy in social studies had caused intolerable expectations to be placed on the School Book Branch and that lists of primary and secondary reference lists should be made available. Ledgerwood responded by informing the Curriculum Policies Board that an ad hoc committee was to be formed which would select three to ten primary resources for each grade level. This list was to be made available by May, 1978 (Ibid.).

Policy #7 dealing with Canadian content reflected the suggestions

by the Curriculum Policies Board that Canadian content in social studies should appear in concentrated blocs instead of being distributed in piecemeal fashion throughout the grades (Ibid.).

After this discussion, a motion was passed by the Curriculum Policies Board to allow the nine policy statements to serve as the framework under which subsequent social studies curriculum revisions would occur. The motion put forward by Wagner and seconded by Weissenborn approved the nine policy statements with the understanding that the Curriculum Policies Board would examine the revised program in detail once it was completed (Ibid.).

Subsequent Developments

With the nine policy statements firmly established, the SSCCC undertook to revise the social studies program to fit within the framework established by the Curriculum Policies Board. Not everyone was happy with the revisions. At a meeting of major school board supervisory personnel and Alberta Education, concern was expressed about the whole philosophy and rationale—that valuing had been downplayed and that the curriculum was all knowledge. The accusation was made that the revisions were a "sell-out" of the 1971 program (SSCCC Minutes, October 13, 14, 1977).

The SSCCC also continued to grapple with the issue of how specific the curriculum should be. At its meeting of December 8, 9, 1977, a motion put forward by Connors and seconded by Dever was carried. The motion stated that the curriculum handbook could not contain a level of specificity that would provide a degree of instructional detail that would outline what was to be taught in every social

studies class from grades one to twelve (SSCCC Minutes, December 8, 9, 1977).

Social Studies Proposal by the SSCCC to the Curriculum Policies Board, February 2, 3, 1978

By February, 1978, the SSCCC had revised the social studies program within the framework established by the Curriculum Policies Board, and was ready to present its program proposal to the Curriculum Policies Board. Ledgerwood and Crowther attended this meeting of the CPB. Ledgerwood presented the program proposal and outlined the four-fold purpose of the presentation:

1. to gain approval for this interim draft which outlined the prescribed content and objectives for Grades 1-12.
2. to obtain approval for a learning resources policy which would accompany the new social studies program.
3. to obtain approval for the development of support materials such as unit plans, monographs, and a parent guide.
4. to gain approval for the implementation plan for the social studies curriculum. (CPB Minutes, February 2, 3, 1978)

Ledgerwood noted that the SSCCC had followed the nine policy statements developed by the Curriculum Policies Board in developing its program proposal, with one exception. That exception was the proposal dealing with Canadian content. The SSCCC attempted to place Canadian content where it fit naturally into grade themes, and thus had placed some Canadian content at each grade level (Ibid.).

The SSCCC sought approval from the Curriculum Policies Board to allow it to make minor changes in the interim draft when learning resources and unit plans were being prepared (Ibid.). The SSCCC also

recommended that approval be given for the development of unit plans for each grade, monographs which would provide instruction on how to teach the curriculum and a parents' guide (Ibid.).

Draft Motions

The social studies proposal put forward a motion that the Curriculum Policies Board recommend to the Minister of Education that:

1. the refined version of the interim draft be available to schools as an alternate program for 1978-79 and 1979-80.
2. teacher in-service, further revisions to the Master Plan, and the development of support materials continue for an additional eighteen months.
3. a finalized program receive mandatory implementation in Alberta Social Studies classrooms in September, 1980. (Ibid.)

Ledgerwood motivated this motion because of the need to meet the objectives of school boards and teachers and especially those who had been involved in the curriculum revisions. He argued against immediate implementation because some revisions still needed to be made and resources for the program had not been selected yet. However, by making the program an alternate one, schools with adequate resources could begin the process of implementing some aspects of the new program (Ibid.).

A second draft motion concerning resources was also put forward in the social studies proposal. The motion recommended that:

1. three to ten print or non-print learning resources be identified at each grade level
2. primary resources receive a forty percent discount
3. the list of primary resources be revised each year. (Ibid.)

The motivation for this motion centred around the assistance

that the resources would provide in implementing the program. However, it was stressed that it was important to provide a variety of resources so that social studies would not become a textbook course (Ibid.).

A third draft motion was also presented which dealt with in-service (Ibid.). According to the minutes of the Curriculum Policies Board, the recommendation for the in-service program was based on Recommendation #9 from The Downey Report which recommended that Alberta Education initiate a program of in-service education for Alberta social studies teachers.

Reaction of the Curriculum Policies Board to the Social Studies Proposal

The Curriculum Policies Board generally held the view that the Master Plan had an appropriate amount of structure, except in the area of the one-quarter unstructured time. The Curriculum Policies Board requested that a stronger rationale for the unstructured time be provided (CPB Minutes, February 2, 3, 1978).

The board agreed that the balance among knowledge, values, and skills objectives was appropriate and suggested that the rationale contained in the Master Plan emphasize that a sound knowledge base must provide the context for valuing to take place. The board also accepted the amount of Canadian content found in the new social studies curriculum (Ibid.).

Implementation of the Program

Ledgerwood spoke on the need to implement the interim curriculum. He stated that expectations had been raised and that failure to provide

the revised program would be a disappointment to people in the field. As well, if the new program was not made available, some of the larger school systems might go their own way in making revisions to the current social studies program (Ibid.).

Motion #42: Approval of the Interim Program

The motion included the following:

1. an alternate program for the social studies would be made available for 1978-79 and 1979-80, which would be a refined version of the Master Plan (Interim Draft).
2. the Master Plan would receive further refinement, support materials would be developed, and in-service would continue for another eighteen months.
3. a finalized program subject to approval by the Curriculum Policies Board would become mandatory as of September, 1980. (Ibid.)

Motion #43: Learning Resources

The motion put forward the following:

The Curriculum Policies Board recommend to the Minister that:

1. three to ten resources for each grade level be identified.
2. all primary resources would receive a forty percent discount. (Ibid.)

Motion #44: Learning Resources

The motion included:

1. the list of primary resources for the social studies curriculum receive updating annually.
2. any title found on the list of primary resources remain there for a minimum of three years. (Ibid.)

Motion #45: In-service Education

A motion was put forward to the effect that the Curriculum Policies Board recommend to the Minister of Education that the proposal regarding in-service education submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board by the SSCCC be further developed and acted upon (Ibid.).

All motions put forward by Ledgerwood and the SSCCC in their submission to the Curriculum Policies Board were approved with the exception of Motion #44. A change was made in the length of time a title would remain on the list of primary resources. The SSCCC had proposed that the list be revised each year; the motion passed by the Curriculum Policies Board stated that the title of a primary resource would remain on the list for a minimum of three years.

Crowther commented on the deliberations made by the SSCCC regarding a policy on the listing of resources, and the change made by the Curriculum Policies Board. He stated:

> The critical thing was that the committee had to come up with a policy statement about resources. And that was amongst the most bitter of all the meetings ever because for many of the people on the committee, the idea of having prescribed resources was the antithesis of open and free inquiry. . . . The SSCCC had to find some way of coming up with a recommendation on textbooks even though they found the word itself to be most abusive. They eventually passed a motion to the effect that the social studies should have three to ten prescribed resources at each grade level and that the list of resources should be changed every year. The Curriculum Policies Board . . . took about thirty second to figure out what was going on and accepted the motion with an amendment changing it from one year to three. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Motion #42 which proposed approval of the interim program was

passed by a close vote by the Curriculum Policies Board. Torgunrud in a letter to Koziak stated that the close vote indicated the Curriculum Policies Board's concern about approving a curriculum that was as yet not completely finalized (Memo, Torgunrud to Koziak, February 13, 1978).

Torgunrud in a memo to Crowther outlined the remaining concerns of the Curriculum Policies Board and the changes that were required in the Interim Edition. Among these were the following:

1. fluency had to be improved and jargon eliminated.
2. the criteria for the unstructured time had to be made more clear and spelled out in more detail.
3. knowledge as a base for valuing had to be emphasized.
4. some topic descriptions had to be revised as they appeared too heavy especially in Grades 8, 9, and 11. (Memo, Torgunrud to Crowther, February 10, 1978)

Summary

This section of Chapter 4 focused on the forces that exerted influence and affected those changes to the social studies curriculum that resulted in increased prescription and structure. It also outlined the process of curriculum development that occurred and that resulted in the approval of the SSCCC's social studies program proposal by the Curriculum Policies Board in February, 1978.

Unlike the period that gave rise to the 1971 curriculum, the societal context that existed at the time of the development of the 1978 curriculum was more conservative. This conservative trend was reflected in education with one of its manifestations being the "back to the basics" movement.

The media, parents, school boards, some segments of the university community, superintendents, and the lay public all called for an emphasis on basic education to some degree. Teachers, in the majority, pressed for increased prescription in the social studies program.

During this period, the Alberta government undertook a policy of reversing (at least to some degree) the early 1970's trend to decentralization of education. As well, the government reflected the concerns of Albertans who supported an emphasis on basic education.

The Curriculum Policies Board, which scrutinized all curricula being developed or revised, was responsible for approving all curricula before they received Ministerial approval. The types of policy precedents that the Curriculum Policies Board had established in their deliberations in considering the revisions to the language arts, mathematics, and science programs influenced the changes made to the social studies program by the SSCCC.

Most of the membership of the SSCCC and the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, Ledgerwood, were strong supporters of the 1971 program and resisted the pressure to move to greater structure and prescription. Eventually, however, the SSCCC conceded to some aspects of this pressure being exerted on them by those forces that favoured increased structure. This was reflected in the program proposal they submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board for approval.

In February, 1978, the Curriculum Policies Board gave formal approval to the social studies curriculum proposal presented by the SSCCC. This was Ledgerwood's last act as Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies before his resignation from this position.

The next section of Chapter 4 examines the process and outcomes of curriculum development that occurred after the Curriculum Policies Board gave formal approval to the revised social studies curriculum, to the time when the social studies program received formal Ministerial approval. As well, it examines the change in leadership and leadership style that occurred with Ledgerwood's resignation and Crowther's appointment to the position of Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, and the impact that this had on curriculum development.

The Curriculum Development Process After the February, 1978 Approval of the Social Studies Program by the Curriculum Policies Board

The curriculum development process continued after the Curriculum Policies Board gave formal approval to the social studies program submitted by the SSCCC. This section of Chapter 4 examines this process.

Ledgerwood Resigns: Crowther Appointed Associate Director

The submission of the SSCCC's proposal to the Curriculum Policies Board was one of the last formal acts by Ledgerwood in his capacity as Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies. In February, 1978, Ledgerwood resigned as Associate Director of Curriculum to take a post in St. Lucia. Crowther, who was Chairman of the SSCCC, was appointed as the new Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies.

Ministerial Decision Deferred

In March, the Minister of Education made the decision to defer approval of the interim social studies program. Three reasons were

given for this deferral. They were:

1. The Curriculum Policies Board had approved the social studies program by a close vote. (CPB Minutes, May 4, 5, 1978)

2. Ministerial approval would not be forthcoming until the Goals of Education debate occurred in the Legislature. Because a component of the Goals of Education might include an emphasis on history and geography, a subsequent revision of the social studies curriculum might be necessary. (SSCCC Minutes, March 6, 7, 1978; CPB Minutes, May 4, 5, 1978)

3. There was a high degree of public interest in the social studies program. (CPB Minutes, May 4, 5, 1978)

Revisions Proceed

After the February meeting of the Curriculum Policies Board, the SSCCC began the task of revising the interim social studies program along the lines outlined by the Curriculum Policies Board. Crowther was the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies and Carter became the Chairman of the Curriculum Committee (SSCCC).

Crowther brought a different style to the position of Associate Director of Curriculum. Crowther discussed the differences between himself and Ledgerwood. He stated:

> I think that Doug made an attempt to be very democratic. He always approached problems in an open ended way and allowed committees to have a chance to form alternatives and decisions. . . . He gave lots of authority to the committee. In other ways it bothered me that no committee could do some of the things that they were expected to do. Doug was attending public sessions where he was being chastized . . . and I didn't like it so my feeling . . . was that he should have been able to direct the situation to avoid the controversy better than he did. I think my own operation in the branch was different. I was much more structured in how I organized committees and their operations. I was much more demanding of them for taking responsibility for getting things done. But at the same time I don't select committee members. My position is that this is a professional thing and the ATA has to accept responsibility. Every member who comes in here now is appointed by the ATA. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Confrontations on the SSCCC began to occur (Langford, Personal Interview, December 21, 1981). Dever described it this way: "The committee became very confrontationist over personality. The frustration occurred because we were losing" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Confrontation between Crowther and some members of the SSCCC began to emerge. There were disagreements over the direction in which the revisions should proceed. Crowther discussed the disagreements stating:

> I felt that meeting (March, 1978) was the low point in the whole thing. . . . I could see that a lot of things had to be done with the curriculum in order to feel that it would work in schools. . . . It was clear to me in many respects just in the way it was written, in terms of jargon, lack of consistency between different areas of objectives, and so forth, [that there] was such a lack of detail that it wasn't going to work. It was on the right track, but more definitive statements had to be included in it and the Curriculum Policy Board recommendations had to be followed. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981, revised August 16, 1982)

Crowther took a position in opposition to the views held by many members of the SSCCC. Crowther stated:

> I felt that . . . I was moving from one kind of position to another [Chairman of the SSCCC to Associate Director of Curriculum] and there was a certain kind of a challenge going on to my personal authority and I had a job to do that was different from the way they [members of the SSCCC] had expected me to do it. . . . And that I had a responsibility other than to them. . . . I think that . . . by this time, many members of the committee were victims of history because the circumstances had changed. Whereas when they started their work, having a liberal outlook on things was fine. . . . So they did their own thing. Then all of a sudden all of these other things caught up: back to the basics, Canadian studies, history, politicians, textbooks—it all got there. Now, when I first took over this thing in 1978, I felt we had to start responding to all those things. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther felt that the program proposal adopted by the Curriculum Policies Board ". . . wouldn't have got to first base in implementation,"

and thus began to take steps to organize the revisions (Personal Interview, July 14, 1982). The ideas of what the Curriculum Policies Board wanted in terms of a social studies program meshed with Crowther's. Crowther stated:

> The Curriculum Policies Board was reflecting what teachers were saying. They were right on in what they wanted and I agreed. I felt that the Curriculum Policies Board, if anything, underestimated the situation. (Personal Interview, July 14, 1982)

The ad hoc committees were comprised of regional office consultants, individuals from the universities, school system supervisors, teachers, some members of the SSCCC, and other educators. Crowther discussed these ad hoc committees stating:

> I structured committees to the best of my ability to streamline the descriptions and various objectives and they included people that I had done some work with before. They went ahead and developed the set of core concepts and generalizations that were in the 1978 program and the different areas of value objectives . . . and the inquiry model. All of those types of delineations came out of the work of those ad hoc committees operating after the approval by the Board. . . . I had great confidence in the ad hoc committees because I had structured them myself. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther also stated that he had confidence in the ad hoc committees because the Curriculum Policies Board had given their approval to proceed and their work was overlapping with the Kanata Kit project (Personal Interview, August 16, 1982).

Crowther also placed a great deal of confidence in the ability of the regional consultants to handle the job of the revisions. Thus, the regional consultants played a major role on the ad hoc committees. Crowther stated:

> I have always made major reliance on our regional officers . . . I always found them as the bread and butter of curriculum development. . . . They are absolutely totally dependable,

> competent people. That's been my experience always. And they . . . reflected the views of teachers. They were in the field every day. They could do the job in curriculum in a whole number of ways and my approach was to use them to head up all these things in a way that hadn't been done previously. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther also stated that the regional consultants were available to do work for days at a time. Most members of the SSCCC were not in a position to do so because of their commitments to their respective school boards. Thus, the prime responsibility for completing the curriculum revisions was undertaken by the regional consultants (Personal Interview, August 16, 1982).

Other people who also served on the ad hoc committees had an impact on the work of those committees (Parsons, Personal Interview, January, 1982; Crowther, Personal Interviews, October 6, 1981 and July 14, 1982). Major sections of the 1978 social studies program were developed in the ad hoc committees (e.g., the social inquiry model used in the 1978 program) (Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982). Once the work of these committees was completed, their material went to other committees for further work, evaluation, and validation. Experts, who were university personnel, individual coordinating committee members and school system supervisors, were used to validate the material (Crowther, Personal Interview, July 14, 1982).

The pace of the revisions was extremely hectic (Carter, Personal Interview, February 18, 1982). Not only were the revisions being undertaken, but work on the Heritage Project and teaching units was also occurring at the same time. The fact that the Minister of Education might wish to formally approve the curriculum at any time

meant that the revisions had to be done quickly. Crowther stated: "We knew at any given time the Minister was going to approve the curriculum. We had to be prepared so it could go to print. We were under a lot of pressure" (Personal Interview, July 14, 1982).

The ad hoc committees were answerable to Crowther. He structured the tasks, scrutinized, and approved all work of the ad hoc committees (Crowther, Personal Interview, July 14, 1982). Chamberlin discussed Crowther's role stating:

> I was on a knowledge sub-committee and one of the issues that we had difficulty in resolving was some concern of how much detail should go into them. Crowther then sat down and decided himself that they should be put into these three categories. . . . Our perception was that Frank had asked us to sit on the committee and we reported back to him. I was also on the skills committee, and that was my perception I had that we reported to Frank. He convened the meetings, and identified the tasks. We were working on Frank's tasks. (Personal Interview, December 4, 1982)

Crowther's stamp was on the curriculum. He described his influence this way:

> I gave approval and edited every word in the document [for literacy] with help from individuals like Chamberlin, Parsons, and Johnson. In the final analysis, my bias entered into it. I would re-write it [the document]. I did everything in the final editing state myself. (Personal Interview, July 14, 1982)

Throughout this process of revision, the members of the SSCCC had little impact on the revisions that occurred. Dever stated: "After the February approval by the Curriculum Policies Board, the SSCCC didn't have a lot of input" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982). Dever also saw the use of the regional consultants for this work as a way of by-passing the members of the SSCCC. Dever stated: "It was a way of running around the SSCCC by appointing the regional consultants" (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982).

Another indication of the different direction that Crowther was taking from the SSCCC was the steps he took to change the membership of the SSCCC. Some members were told that "their time was up" and they were replaced. Crowther discussed why this occurred:

> For one thing the committee should never have stayed intact as long as it did. The committee according to Department policy should have changed in membership every year or at least every two years. That committee had been held together as a total group throughout the total duration except a couple of people resigned because of personal things they wanted to do. Now it became apparent to me that some changes in the committee were needed because nobody should be permitted to stay with the committee that long. There was a new chairman and a couple of new people, but apart from that they were all still there. And that was wrong. It was inconsistent with policy. It just so happened that we needed some new members on there as well because it seemed to me that if we were going to get on with the job and from a purely selfish point of view, it would be much easier if we had a number of new members. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther also stated that the SSCCC needed broader representation and so changes were made (Personal Interview, August 16, 1982).

Even though Crowther respected the other members of the SSCCC, their differences on social studies curriculum policy had diverged to such a degree, that reconciliation over policy did not seem possible. Crowther stated:

> All of these people I've had association with—I like them as people and I have the greatest respect for them all as individuals. And I think under different circumstances, the kinds of things they wanted to do would have been wonderful. They're the most enlightened and intelligent, and responsible people that you could get and are a credit to the profession. . . . On the other hand, there was a point at which it seemed to me that their outlook on what needed to be on the nature of the curriculum . . . was at odds with what I thought it needed to be. (Personal Interview, October 6, 1981)

Crowther also added that the SSCCC did not represent the field and that a broader view of teachers' perspectives was required on the SSCCC

(Personal Interview, August 16, 1982).

The last meeting of the existing SSCCC was in August, 1978. By October, 1978, the new SSCCC held its first meeting. There was a new university representative and the other members of the SSCCC had been nominated. Three members of the previous SSCCC continued work on the SSCCC until the May 31, June 1, 1979 meeting of the SSCCC. Those members were J. Langford, J. Mueller, and D. Morgan (Minutes of the Social Studies Consultants' Meeting, May 30, 1979).

Connors talked about the decision to release the individuals from the SSCCC. He stated:

> It came as a shock. Some committees were in existence a lot longer than we had. . . . We were informed by the Chairman at the last or second last meeting that our time was up and that a new committee would be taking over. . . . The reason given was that curriculum committees are appointed for a specific length of time so there was a need for new blood and new experiences. I don't think it was the real reason. (Personal Interview, October 9, 1981)

Van Manen also talked about the decision stating:

> Crowther found that the committee was hard to handle and they'd rather have a clean slate. That's the feeling I had. The committee was too vocal and too independent. I don't mean anything bad by that. The committee was meant to be periodically changed, but I was surprised by the massive change. Personally, I was happy to be off it. (Personal Interview, October 22, 1981)

Approval of the Social Studies Program

The Curriculum Policies Board did not examine the revisions made to the social studies program after the Curriculum Policies Board's approval of the program in February, 1978. The last meeting held by the Curriculum Policies Board in 1978 was on May 4, 5, 1978 where the Board was informed that Ministerial approval of the social studies

curriculum had been deferred. The Curriculum Policies Board did not meet again until March, 1979 (CPB Minutes, May 4, 5, 1978; CPB Minutes, March 6, 7, 1979).

In June, 1978, the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet discussed the new social studies program (see page 129 of this study).

On July 24, 1978, Koziak wrote to Lougheed outlining the major features of the revised social studies program (Memo, Koziak to Lougheed, July 24, 1978).

On September 6, the Cabinet Committee on Education approved the social studies program for a two year trial basis (Letter, Crowther to Skolrood, September 11, 1978).

On October 18, 1978, the Minister of Education, Julian Koziak in a news release, stated that the revised social studies program would be made available for optional use starting January 1, 1979.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to conduct a historical survey and documentary analysis of those processes and events that resulted in the development of the 1978 Alberta Social Studies Curriculum—Interim Edition. The study identified those individuals and groups who influenced the development of the social studies curriculum. As well, it examined the curriculum development process and identified the factors, events and decisions that affected the particular outcomes of the process of curriculum development. The findings of this study were presented in Chapter 4.

This chapter contains a summary of the findings of Chapter 4. As well, it interprets those findings and gives suggestions for further related research.

Summary

This section of Chapter 5 describes the major actors, events, decisions, and trends that were significant in the development of the social studies curriculum examined in this study.

In 1967 a conference organized by the Alberta Department of Education changed the direction of Alberta social studies. As a result of the conference new directions were set and the new Alberta social studies curriculum included interdisciplinary studies, an inquiry-oriented approach, an emphasis on valuing, teacher autonomy and

flexibility. This new social studies curriculum was introduced into Alberta schools in 1971.

In 1967, Canada celebrated its Centennial. Along with the celebrations came a heightened awareness of Canada and its culture, and a new burst of Canadian nationalism. These feelings of Canadian nationalism were reflected in Canadian education. In 1968, A. B. Hodgetts published What Culture? What Heritage? which outlined his view of the deplorable state of affairs in the teaching of Canadian studies. The great response to Hodgetts' report indicated the concern of people across Canada to the existing state of Canadian studies in Canadian schools. In February, 1969, a conference attended by delegates across Canada took steps to establish a committee that would coordinate efforts to improve Canadian studies throughout Canada. The result of this conference was the formation of the Canadian Studies Foundation in Feburary, 1970. In that same year, Project Canada West was established to gather support for increased Canadian studies in Western Canada. By 1973, the issue of Canadian nationalism had become a national movement with broad-based support. Prominent Canadians, like Mel Hurtig, campaigned actively for increased Canadian studies in the schools.

The Alberta Department of Education responded to this pressure for increased Canadian content in a number of ways. In 1973 and 1974, curriculum committees undertook to identify learning resources that were authored and/or published by Canadians. In 1975, Dr. Ralph Sabey was appointed to the Department of Education to fill the position of consultant in Canadian studies. In that same year, the Curriculum

Branch undertook to establish curriculum development teams to develop units in Canadian studies for specific grade levels. The trend across Canada was to increase and improve Canadian studies in the educational system, and Alberta was no exception.

In 1975, The Downey Report was released. It praised the 1971 Alberta social studies curriculum for its basic orientation, but strongly criticized the lack of implementation of the program in Alberta social studies classrooms. The Downey Report provided the mandate for revisions of the 1971 social studies program to proceed.

Two bodies in particular were to play a significant role in the curriculum revisions, namely the Curriculum Policies Board and the Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee (SSCCC). These two bodies were established in 1975 when major changes were made to the curriculum development structures that existed in the Department of Education. As well, in 1975, Dr. C. D. Ledgerwood was appointed Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies replacing Dr. H. G. Sherk.

In early 1976, the SSCCC began the task of revising the 1971 social studies program using the recommendations of The Downey Report. Most of the members of the SSCCC were strong supporters of the 1971 social studies program and attempted to adhere to the major orientations of that program in the revisions that were undertaken.

A significant movement began to make its influence felt in Alberta education in 1976. This was a conservative movement which embraced a philosophy of "back to the basics." Strong pressures were exerted on the Department of Education from a number of sources. These

sources included sections of the Alberta media such as St. John's Edmonton Report, parents, and the lay public. The Alberta School Trustees' Association urged the government to exercise greater leadership in the development, implementation, and evaluation of core curriculum in Alberta. As well, some segments of the university community indicated their concern about the level of literacy of Alberta high school graduates.

In 1976 and 1977, the SSCCC held meetings throughout Alberta with parents, students, teachers, and administrators to garner reactions to the revisions of the social studies program. Teachers made up the bulk of the participants in these meetings, and in the majority of cases they made strong representation for increased structure and prescription in the social studies curriculum.

The government of Alberta began to give increasing attention to education. In December, 1976, in a year-end interview, Premier Lougheed stated that Albertans were concerned that there was not enough emphasis placed on the basics in education and that he would be turning his personal attention to education to examine the quality of education, and to assess if new curricula were needed. In that same year, government concern regarding student achievement was reflected in the formation of the Minister's Advisory Committee on Student Achievement. On February 24, 1977, the Speech from the Throne indicated the government's concern about basic education, and in that same year, the Minister of Education spoke in the Legislature of the importance of legislating objectives and priorities for education in Alberta. As well, the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Fund Learning Resources

Project was established in 1977. The project was to produce Canadian studies resource materials for Alberta schools and was funded with $8.37 million dollars from the provincial government.

In 1977, the Curriculum Policies Board established policy trends as a result of its deliberations regarding the mathematics, science, and language arts curricula. These policy trends incorporated greater structure and prescription and established the parameters within which the social studies revisions occurred.

The SSCCC made concessions to the pressures being exerted on it by the forces favouring increased structure and prescription. This resulted in the development of the program that Ledgerwood submitted to the Curriculum Policies Board on behalf of the SSCCC in February, 1978. The Curriculum Policies Board approved the program proposal by a narrow margin. The presentation of the program proposal was Ledgerwood's last formal act as Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies. At that point he resigned and Frank Crowther assumed this position.

Further curriculum development continued after the Curriculum Policies Board's approval of the social studies program. Crowther assembled ad hoc committees to undertake further revisions to the social studies curriculum. The ad hoc committees were separate from the SSCCC and the SSCCC lost its influence over these subsequent curriculum revisions. By the summer of 1978, most members of the SSCCC had either resigned or been replaced.

The Social Planning Committee of Cabinet examined the social studies curriculum before it was officially adopted, and the Minister

of Education, Julian Koziak, gave formal approval to the social studies program of studies in October, 1978.

Conclusions and Implications

The previous section presented a summary of the major actors, events, decisions, and trends of the social studies curriculum development process. This next section will provide conclusions and implications of the findings of this study.

In Chapter 2 numerous writers in the field of curriculum development were cited as having identified a multitude of factors that can influence curriculum development (MacDonald, 1971; Zais, 1976; Firth and Kimpston, 1973). These factors may act in concert with each other in a common view of what curriculum policy and policy making should be, or in conflict because of disconsonant views regarding the content of curriculum and the process by which curriculum should be made. In Alberta during the period 1975 to 1978, many factors can be identified that influenced the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies program. These factors will be examined in light of the influence they exerted on the development of the social studies curriculum.

Government as an Influence

The review of the literature in Chapter 2 identifies government as a factor that can influence curriculum development. In Canada where the provinces have been granted control over education by the British North America Act, the provincial governments have played and will continue to play a major role in this area. In Alberta, the

provincial government exerted a strong influence on social studies curriculum development during the period of this study. It is evident that the provincial government was dissatisfied with some of the existing trends in education. The Worth Report, which had established general education policy in Alberta for a number of years, came under criticism from the government. The policy of de-centralization which was operating in some areas of education did not meet with favour by the provincial government and began to be reversed. Members of the government also expressed concern about the lack of Canadian content in the schools, the level of basic skills taught, and the achievement of Alberta students.

The provincial government was one that actively sought change in the existing education system. The influence exerted by the government on Alberta education was felt in the area of social studies. Some of the influences were informal or indirect. A number of individuals discussed how this type of informal influence was exerted. The Premier, the Minister of Education, or some other prominent political figure would make a public pronouncement or statement on some matter relevant to the social studies program. Individuals in the political and educational structures would be aware of these stands, would pick up on these, and endeavour to make an impact on the changes occurring in education. Here the influence was a subtle one; there were no dictates as to what changes had to be made. And yet, in the subsequent changes that did occur, there is evidence of the positions put forward by prominent political figures. An example of this was that many prominent political individuals felt that there was

a need for increased Canadian history in the social studies program. In the curriculum that was developed, there is evidence of increased Canadian history in the program of studies.

Other government influences were more direct. In some cases Ministerial directives were given, as to how the social studies curriculum revisions should proceed. For example, the Minister of Education indicated that Canadian content was to be emphasized in the new social studies program. As well, the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet was involved in perusing and discussing the social studies curriculum before it was officially adopted.

The government's move away from de-centralization resulted in the adoption in the Alberta Legislature in May, 1978, of a new set of Goals of Basic Education for Alberta which served to:

1. identify the distinctive role of the school and its contribution to the total education of youth.
2. provide purpose and direction to curriculum planning and evaluation.
3. enable parents, teachers, and the community at large to develop a common understanding of what the schools are trying to achieve. (Alberta Education, Report of the Curriculum Policies Board, 1976 to 1978, no date, p. 10)

Since these Goals of Basic Education were not adopted until May, 1978, they would not have had any direct influence on the social studies curriculum development process up until that time. Their influence as government policy or legislation would be exerted in the curriculum deliberations and revisions that came after that date. By this time, most of the revisions to the social studies program had been completed. However, it should be noted that the Minister of Education deferred approval of the social studies curriculum until

after the "goals" had been adopted in the Legislature to ensure that the revisions to the social studies program were consistent with the statements found in the Goals of Basic Education. One can speculate that the Social Planning Committee of Cabinet may have used the "goals" as one of the criteria by which to determine if the revisions to the social studies curriculum should be adopted. The Goals of Basic Education would no doubt have had a greater influence on the subsequent revisions that occurred to the 1978 interim edition.

A number of educational writers cited in Chapter 2 have identified funding from the government as having an influence on curriculum development (Firth and Kimpston, 1973; Kirst and Walker, 1971; Doll, 1978b). In 1977, the provincial government of Alberta approved the Alberta Heritage Savings Trust Fund Learning Resources Project which allocated 8.37 million dollars to the production of Canadian studies materials, many of which would be used in Alberta social studies classrooms. The large amount of money allowed for more people to be hired to undertake curriculum work, and thus more people became involved in curriculum writing, pilotting, and so on. The involvement of these people could tend to increase their commitment to the program and thus might ensure greater success in implementation as compared to the 1971 program. The widespread use of these curricular materials would help to insure that Canadian studies would be an important part of the operational social studies curriculum in Alberta classrooms, and would also provide for greater standardization of topics and materials throughout classrooms in Alberta.

Clearly the role of the Alberta government was an

interventionist one which influenced the direction of social studies curriculum development. The influence of the government was reflected in a number of areas including increased Canadian studies, and increased centralization and standardization throughout the province. The policy trends of increased centralization and standardization resulted in a loss of teacher autonomy over some aspects of curriculum development and resource selection and evaluation.

Major Interest Groups as an Influence

Interest groups have been identified as having an impact on curriculum development. Very often they are organized around "episodic issues" and their effectiveness is usually dependent upon their degree of organization, and the degree to which they can strike a responsive chord within sectors of the general public. Interest groups may include parents, teachers, the local lay community, and the media.

Major interest groups expressed dissatisfaction with education in Alberta. This dissatisfaction centred around three major issues: the amount of Canadian studies, "basic" education, and the amount of structure and prescription.

The campaign to increase Canadian studies was a strong, well organized cross-country effort. A. B. Hodgetts' report had a major impact and led to the formation of the Canadian Studies Foundation and Project Canada West which were successful in winning support in both the educational and political arenas. Influential Canadians, such as Mel Hurtig, effectively mobilized public opinion in this area. Provincially, school boards also exerted pressure on the provincial

government and Department of Education to increase Canadian studies. There appeared to be a popular groundswell of support for increasing Canadian studies while any opponents' views remained relatively muted.

Increased pressure was also being exerted on the provincial government and Department of Education to emphasize basic education. The Alberta media provided extensive coverage to this issue. In particular, St. John's Edmonton Report campaigned actively and vigorously for a return to standards and basic education. Social studies in particular bore a large brunt of the criticism that St. John's Edmonton Report levelled at education in Alberta. A large number of the people interviewed indicated that St. John's Edmonton Report appeared to be a powerful force shaping public opinion.

Parents, whose voices were heard, demanded a return to basic education. School boards added their voice to the concerns being expressed about student achievement, and supported the government in the centralization of curriculum decision making and evaluation at a provincial level. Teachers in the majority were also strongly demanding increased structure and prescription.

These major interest groups were voicing dissatisfaction with education in Alberta including social studies, and were demanding that changes be made.

The Curriculum Development Process

The Department of Education was open to input from various interest groups in the revisions that were being undertaken in the social studies program. The Downey Report provided a formal evaluation

of the 1971 social studies curriculum which demonstrated the lack of implementation of that program. Oliver (1977) has cited reports on education as being an influence on curriculum development. The Downey Report provided the mandate to proceed with the revisions to the social studies curriculum. As subsequent developments occurred in the educational arena, some of the Downey recommendations were discarded or by-passed. However, one recommendation in The Downey Report carried great significance for the curriculum development process. The Downey Report recommended that the revision and reassessment of the Master Plan should involve all stakeholder groups (Downey, 1975, p. 24).

The Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education made a conscious decision to gain as much input as possible into the revisions that were being undertaken in the social studies curriculum. This decision to do things in a "fishbowl" was attributed to the large amount of controversy surrounding the social studies curriculum and the desire to avoid the pitfalls of the 1971 social studies curriculum development process where teacher input and community input had not been solicited to any large degree. As a result of this decision, the Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, Ledgerwood, and members of the SSCCC travelled throughout Alberta garnering reactions to the social studies revisions.

The provincial government also appeared to be open to input from various interest groups. Statements made by the government reflected the views of powerful forces who sought increased Canadian studies, prescription and structure, and an emphasis on basic education. It is difficult to ascertain the degree to which the government was reactive,

and the degree to which it was proactive. Was the government simply mirroring the demands of these interest groups in its pronouncements, or was the government itself an independent force that sought to influence the direction of curriculum development because of the views of its members? Probably the answer is a combination of both—the provincial government was both reactive and proactive. The provincial government did embrace certain stands advocated by certain forces in the province. For example, many members of the government supported increased Canadian studies in Alberta classrooms being advocated by many groups and individuals. In this sense, they were reactive. On the other hand, there is evidence that the provincial government has also played a proactive role. In a speech made on September 10, 1982 Premier Lougheed indicated an extension of mandatory courses in history and geography. Since there does not appear to be a major groundswell of support at this time for increased history and geography, this would indicate a proactive role being played by the provincial government in education.

The provincial government also appeared to be open to input by the formation of the Curriculum Policies Board whose stated purpose was to ". . . provide more public participation in basic curriculum policy" (Alberta Education, Statement of the Curriculum Policies Board—1976-1978, p. 1). However, the fact that the majority of members of the board were appointed by the Minister of Education, and the fact that decisions of the Curriculum Policies Board could be overruled by the Minister suggest limitations on public participation and input into curriculum policy making.

Curriculum Development as a Political Process

The very nature of curriculum development which results in some alternatives being chosen over others and in some factors exerting more influence than others makes curriculum decision making a political process. In this study, "political process" is defined in the following manner:

> Political as it is used in this section is not confined to phenomena involving government; it refers more broadly to all the processes by which conflicts among competing public policies . . . are resolved. (Zais, 1976, p. 470)

Numerous education writers have discussed the political nature of curriculum development (Tanner and Tanner, 1975; Wiles and Bondi, 1979; Zais, 1976; McNeil, 1977). Kirst and Walker (1971) discuss how the existence of competing values generates political conflict. Because the conflict must be resolved in some fashion, some groups or interests lose and others win on various curricular issues. Kirst and Walker (1971) state:

> The inevitability of conflicting demands, wants, and needs is responsible for the necessarily political character of curriculum policy-making, a character which cannot be avoided. (p. 480)

The process of curriculum development which resulted in the development of the 1978 curriculum was a political process that involved conflicting ideas over a number of curricular issues. The SSCCC was responsible for undertaking the revisions to the 1971 program. As a group, they were strong supporters of the basic philosophy and orientation of the 1971 program. The SSCCC consciously sought input to the curriculum revisions from various stakeholder groups. However, the input they were receiving from government

sources, parents, school boards, teachers, and other interest groups ran counter to their vision of what social studies should be. They were generally opposed to demands that would increase structure and prescription, and reduce teacher autonomy. The membership of the SSCCC initially resisted attempts to revise the curriculum to make it more structured.

As the pressure on the SSCCC continued to mount from various interest groups, pressure was also being exerted on the SSCCC by the Curriculum Policies Board. The pressure exerted was an indirect one. The SSCCC was well aware that their social studies program had to receive approval from the Curriculum Policies Board, and they were aware of the policy trends being established as a result of the board's consideration of other curricula. The Curriculum Policies Board much more reflected the spirit of the times than did the SSCCC. The revisions to curricula were occurring in a time that saw somewhat of a reversal from the open, innovative period of the late 1960's and early 1970's. And the Curriculum Policies Board as a group favoured education policy which reflected this period and which included trends to increased structure and prescription. The fact that the Curriculum Policies Board held greater power over curriculum policy making than the SSCCC made it inevitable that the SSCCC would have to concede some aspects of the social studies program.

The continued pressure from these numerous sources for increased structure and prescription finally caused the SSCCC to give in to outside influences. They made concessions to many demands, although they were also able to maintain important aspects of the

1971 program such as the commitment to maintaining social inquiry as part of the social studies curriculum. Their concessions indicated that the SSCCC was forced to give in to the strong pressure being exerted on it by powerful forces. However, they were also proactive in that they maintained some central aspects of the 1971 program.

As the social studies curriculum development process continued, the SSCCC became a relatively isolated group. There was no organized base of support for the position they were advocating. The relative isolation of the SSCCC was to increase with the resignation of Ledgerwood and the appointment of Crowther to the position of Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies.

The social studies curriculum development process that occurred after Crowther assumed the position of Associate Director of Curriculum in February, 1978, indicated that the work of an individual can make a significant impact on curriculum development. Crowther's dissatisfaction with the existing situation and his strong commitment to change were important in initiating action to continue with the revisions to the social studies curriculum. And he was able to use his position as Associate Director of Curriculum to bring about those changes.

Ledgerwood's departure from the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education could be described as indicating a symbolic "death of the old order." Crowther by-passed the membership of the SSCCC in the curriculum revisions that were undertaken, and as a committee they had little or no input into the revisions that occurred. By the summer of 1978, most members of the SSCCC had either resigned

or been replaced. A number of individuals discussed the feelings of the SSCCC as being one of defeat. Dever's comment perhaps sums it up best. He stated:

> There was a recognition of defeat on the part of the SSCCC and we gave up. We said, "The hell with it." Curriculum is political and I think that's one of the realities we had to face. (Personal Interview, January 28, 1982)

Crowther structured ad hoc committees comprised of people he had confidence in including the regional consultants, school system supervisors, teachers, some members of the SSCCC, and some members of the university community. With the appointment of these individuals, the conflict that had existed with the SSCCC subsided and the committees were able to get on with the task at hand. Even though the pace of curriculum development was extremely hectic, Crowther was able to give firm direction to the committees so that a tremendous amount was accomplished in a short time.

Crowther brought a different leadership style to the development of the social studies curriculum as compared to Ledgerwood. Ledgerwood had overseen a process of soliciting opinions on the social studies revisions from diverse groups. From these solicited reactions, interim drafts of the program were put together. These drafts, in turn, would be submitted for further reaction. The process was slow and contradictory. On the one hand, Ledgerwood and the SSCCC sought broad input; but, on the other hand, they resisted some elements of this feedback holding the view that they had to be leaders and not followers in the development of the social studies curriculum. Two things acted in tension with each other. On the one hand, the SSCCC sought broad input as a means of insuring implementation of the new

social studies curriculum. On the other hand, counterbalancing this input was the SSCCC's commitment to the 1971 program which often ran counter to the demands being placed on the curriculum committee and the input that was being received by the SSCCC.

Crowther, on the other hand, provided definite direction and structure to the curriculum development process. Crowther felt that the demands from teachers, government, and the public were clear, and he saw his task as Associate Director of Curriculum as being one of satisfying those demands. In this way, he was much more supportive of the views being put forward by these interest groups than Ledgerwood had been.

Individuals, such as the university curriculum experts who worked on the committees, did have an influence on the material that was developed. However, their influence was exerted within the parameters of curriculum development established by Crowther. Crowther, by using the resources vested in his office, exerted a powerful influence on the development of the 1978 curriculum. His influence ensured the development of a curriculum that would be implemented in Alberta social studies classrooms while at the same time gaining support from some sectors of the academic community who worked on the revisions and gained a commitment to the program. In this way, both public and professional support could be elicited.

Individuals possessing certain resources can greatly influence the curriculum development process. Standard procedures for appointment to the SSCCC were followed by Ledgerwood but most of the membership of the SSCCC was supportive of the 1971

social studies program which no doubt influenced the direction of the development of the social studies curriculum. Crowther's influence was also central to setting certain directions in curriculum development. However, one cannot isolate these individuals from the broader social, political, and economic context in which they were operating. In a societal context of openness and innovation, it is unlikely that the SSCCC would have been required to make concessions to a more conservative direction in curriculum development. The demands from various interest groups might well have been very different. Thus individuals can have significant influence on curricular decisions, but an understanding of the societal context is also crucial for providing greater understanding of the role of individual influence in curriculum policy making.

Suggestions for Further Study

There are several topics that are suggested for further research. A study of some of these topics could provide additional insights into the development of curriculum, and the influences exerted on it. Others could examine the relationship between certain approaches to curriculum development and the extent of implementation of the programs in classrooms. The following topics are suggested as possible areas of investigation:

1. the curriculum development process that resulted in the development of the 1981 social studies curriculum, and the curricular trends that were established in the 1978 curriculum that were either continued or discontinued in the 1981 curriculum.

2. a comparison of the development of other subject area curricula that were being developed at the same time as the 1978 social studies program to compare similarities and differences in the process of development and the influences on those processes. Other subject areas were also experiencing some controversy such as language arts, mathematics, and sciences.

3. the study of the curriculum development process that led to the development of the Heritage Trust Fund Learning Resources material.

4. the study of the development of the in-service package that was developed as part of the implementation strategy of the 1978 program

5. a comparison of other curriculum development projects occurring in different parts of Canada, and the influences brought to bear on those projects.

6. a study of the role of government in the curriculum development process.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books and Periodicals

Allen, Charles Lester. The Brunskill subproject: A case study. Saskatoon, Sask.: College of Education, University of Saskatchewan, 1972.

Aoki, T., & Werner, W. An analysis of the 1971 secondary social studies curriculum. In L. W. Downey Research Associates, The social studies in Alberta—1975: A report of an assessment. Edmonton: L. W. Downey Research Associates, 1975, pp. 66-87.

Becher, Tony, & Maclure, Stuart. The politics of curriculum change. London: Hutchison and Company Publishers, 1978.

Burke, Marguerite. Professional growth of teachers participating in Project Canada West. Saskatoon, Sask.: College of Education, University of Saskatchewan, 1973.

The Canada Studies Foundation. The Canadian Studies Foundation, 1969.

Carr, D. W. Recovering Canada's nationhood. Ottawa: Canada Publishing Company, 1971.

The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation. Handbook on curriculum development. Organization for Cooperation and Development, 1975.

Doll, Ronald C. Curriculum improvement: Decision making and process. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1978a.

Doll, Ronald C. The multiple forces affecting curriculum change. In Donald E. Orlosky and B. Othanel Smith (Eds.), Curriculum development: Issues and insights. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1978b.

Downey, L. W. Research Associates Limited. The social studies in Alberta—1975: A report of an assessment. Edmonton: Alberta Education, 1975.

Eisner, Elliot W. (Ed.). Confronting curriculum reform. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1971.

Firth, Gerald R., & Kimpston, Richard D. The curricular continuum in perspective. Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, 1973.

Gagne, Wallace (Ed.). Nationalism, technology and the future of Canada. Toronto: McLean Hunter Press, 1976.

Gordon, Walter L. Walter L. Gordon: A political memoir. Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1977.

Hamilton, David. Making sense of curriculum evaluation: Continuities and discontinuities in an educational idea. In Lee S. Shulman (Ed.), Review of research in education (Vol. 5). Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, 1977.

Harvey, Robert G. The social studies, the educational culture, and the state. In Elliot Eisner (Ed.), Confronting curriculum reform. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1971.

Herbert, John, & Herson, Naomi. Curriculum development in Canada. In P. H. Taylor and M. Johnson (Eds.), Curriculum development: A comparative study. Berks, Great Britain: NFER Publishing Company, 1974.

Hersom, Naomi, & Pearson, Allen (Eds.). Perspectives on curriculum: A collection of papers presented to the interdepartmental seminar on curriculum studies. Edmonton, Alberta: Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, 1972.

Kirst, Michael W., & Walker, Decker F. An analysis of curriculum policy making. Review of Educational Research, 1971, 41, 479-509.

Kliebard, Herbert M. The curriculum field in retrospect. In Paul W. F. Witt (Ed.), Technology and the curriculum. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College Press, 1968.

Kliebard, Herbert M. Persistent curriculum issues in historical perspective. In Edmund C. Short (Ed.), A search for valid content for curriculum courses. Toledo, Ohio: College of Education, University of Toledo, 1970.

Koopman, G. Robert. Curriculum development. New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1968.

Korteweg, Laurens. A decade of social studies curriculum development in Alberta. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, 1972.

Krawchenko, Kim. Educational policy discussions in Hansard: A polemical review. In Curriculum Policy. Monograph Series Paper No. 1. Edmonton: Department of Secondary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, no date.

Macdonald, James B. Curriculum development in relation to social and intellectual systems. In Robert M. McClure (Ed.), The curriculum: Retrospect and prospect—70th Yearbook of the NSSE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971a.

Macdonald, James B. Responsible curriculum development. In Elliot Eisner (Ed.), Confronting curriculum reform. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1971b.

McClure, Robert M. (Ed.). The curriculum: Retrospect and prospect—70th Yearbook of the NSSE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971.

McClure, Robert M. Procedures, processes, and products in curriculum development. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1972.

McNeil, John D. Curriculum: A comprehensive introduction. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977.

Miller, Thomas William, & Dhand, Harry. The classroom teacher for Project Canada West as curriculum developer. Project Canada West, 1973.

Nunes, Shiko S. Institutional and political factors in curriculum development. Educational Perspectives, 1977, 16(2), 9-13.

Oliver, Albert I. Curriculum improvement. New York: Harper and Row, 1977.

Orlosky, Donald E., & Smith, B. Othanel. Educational change: Its origins and characteristics. In Donald E. Orlosky and B. Othanel Smith (Eds.), Curriculum development: Issues and insights. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1978a.

Orlosky, Donald E., & Smith, B. Othanel. Curriculum development: Issues and insights. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company, 1978b.

Owen, J. G. The management of curriculum development. Cambridge University Press, 1973.

Paradis, P. et al. The Curriculum Policies Board: A focus for policy making. In Curriculum Policy. Monograph Series Paper No. 1. Edmonton: Department of Secondary Education, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, no date.

Reid, William A. The changing curriculum: Theory and practice. In William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Reid, William A., & Walker, Decker F. (Eds.). Case studies in curriculum change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Richmond, W. Kenneth. The school curriculum. London: Methuen, 1971.

Sabey, Ralph H. The preparation of culturally sensitive curriculum material for Canadian schools: An overview. Council on Anthropology and Education Newsletter, 1973, IV(4).

Sabey, Ralph H. (Ed.). Project Canada West: Program development, people, processes, products. British Columbia Teachers' Federation, 1975.

Sand, Ole. Curriculum change. In Robert M. McClure (Ed.), The curriculum: Retrospect and prospect. 70th Yearbook of the NSSE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971.

Schiro, Michael. Curriculum for better schools: The great ideological debate. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Educational Technology Publications, 1978.

Schwab, Joseph. Foreword. In William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Schwartz, Melvin. The dissemination of the social studies curriculum in a selected school district in New York City: A study in curriculum change. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1971.

Seguel, Mary Louise. The curriculum field: Its formative years. New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1966.

Shaw, K. E. Negotiating curriculum change in a college of education. In William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Smith, Denis. Gentle patriot: A political biography of Walter Gordon. Edmonton: Hurtig Publishers, 1973.

Stenhouse, Lawrence. An introduction to curriculum research and development. London: Heinemann Educational Books, 1976.

Tanner, Daniel, & Tanner, Laurel N. Curriculum development. New York: Macmillan, 1975.

Tyler, Ralph. What curriculum field needs to learn from its history. In Daniel Tanner (Ed.), What curriculum field needs to learn from its history (Symposium of the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Toronto, March 30, 1978).

Walker, Decker F. A naturalistic model for curriculum development. School Review, 1971a, 80, 51-67.

Walker, Decker F. Strategies of deliberation in three curriculum development projects. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, 1971b.

Walker, Decker F. Curriculum change in an art project. In William A. Reid and Decker F. Walker (Eds.), Case studies in curriculum change. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

Wallin, J. H. A. (Ed.). The politics of Canadian education. Edmonton: Canadian Society for the Study of Education, 1977.

Walton, Richard J. Canada and the U.S.A.: A background book about internal conflict and the new nationalism. New York: Parents' Magazine Press, 1972.

Wiles, Jon, & Bondi, Joseph. Curriculum development: A guide to practice. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1979.

Zais, Robert S. Curriculum: Principles and foundations. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1976.

Government Publications and Professional Sources

Alberta Education. Responding to change. 1971.

Alberta Education. Function of Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee. 1976.

Alberta Education. Curriculum development for Alberta Education. 1977.

Alberta Education. 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum—Interim edition. 1978.

Alberta Education. Report of the Curriculum Policies Board 1976-1978. No date.

Alberta Education. The revised curriculum: Intents, structure, and resources—The leaders manual. No date.

Allison, David. Reaction to the Downey Report on the new social studies in Alberta. One World, 1976, 15(1), 65-67.

Sabey, Ralph. Alberta Education's Canadian content for the social studies project. 1976.

Seymour, Betty. Canadianizing the social studies curriculum. One World, 1976, 14(2), 27-28.

Wray, Richard L. Alberta social studies: Great increase in Canadian content. ATA Magazine, 1979, 59(4), 42-43.

Memoranda and Personal Correspondence

Letters

Barrass, Georgeen, Provincial Secretary Historical Society of Alberta to C. D. Ledgerwood. March 31, 1976.

Crowther, F. to R. Sabey. March 29, 1976.

Crowther, F. to H. Skolrood. September 11, 1978.

Dever, W. to C. D. Ledgerwood. March 16, 1977.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to D. Wood. April 13, 1977.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to M. Goerzen. May 31, 1977.

Sheehan, M. A. to the Curriculum Branch. 1977.

Sherk, H. G. to F. Horvath. July 15, 1977.

Torgunrud, E. A. to J. Young. October 31, 1977.

Memoranda

Crowther, F. to B. Carter, B. Johnson, F. Schreiber, H. Toews. January 20, 1978.

Crowther, F. to E. A. Torgunrud. December 18, 1978.

Fedorak, M. to C. D. Ledgerwood. December 22, 1977.

Koziak, J. to E. K. Hawkesworth. 1975.

Koziak, J. to Premier Lougheed. July 24, 1978.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. K. Hawkesworth. January 20, 1976.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. K. Hawkesworth. December 3, 1976.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. A. Torgunrud. January 29, 1974.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. A. Torgunrud. April 19, 1974.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. A. Torgunrud. October 29, 1976.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. A. Torgunrud. April 20, 1977.

Ledgerwood, C. D. to E. A. Torgunrud. November 4, 1977.

Sherk, H. G. to all members of Directors Council and Coordinators of the Regional Offices. 1975.

Sherk, H. G. to E. A. Torgunrud. April 3, 1975.

Torgunrud, E. A. to B. Chandler and F. Schreiber. June 15, 1978.

Torgunrud, E. A. to F. Crowther. February 10, 1978.

Torgunrud, E. A. to J. Koziak. May 26, 1976.

Torgunrud, E. A. to J. Koziak. February 13, 1978.

Torgunrud, E. A. to Associate Directors of Curriculum and Chairpersons of Coordinating Committees. December 6, 1977.

Minutes

Ad Hoc Committee. Minutes. 1978.

Curriculum Policies Board. Minutes. September 28, 29, 1976
November 1, 2, 1976
December 16, 17, 1976
January 20, 21, 1977
February 15, 16, 1977
March 7, 8, 1977
May 5, 6, 1977
August 5, 1977
February 2, 3, 1978
May 4, 5, 1978.

Social Studies Consultants. Minutes. May 10, 1976
September 22, 1976
October 26, 1977
May 30, 1979.

Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee. Minutes.
January 20, 1976
February 23, 24, 1976
March 15, 16, 1976
April 29, 30, 1976
May 31, June 1, 1976
September 23, 24, 1976
December 1, 2, 1976
January 12, 13, 14, 1977
April 12, 13, 1977
May 11, 12, 13, 1977
June 16, 1977
October 13, 14, 1977
December 8, 9, 1977
January 9, 10, 1978
February 9, 10, 1978
March 6, 7, 1978
May 1, 1978
October 6, 1978
November 30, 1978
December 19, 1978

Newspapers and News Magazines

Alberta School Trustee

What the Minister said. Alberta School Trustee, December 1976, pp. 9-13.

Resolutions . . . and how they fared. Alberta School Trustee, December 1976, pp. 17-22.

Edmonton Journal

Adams, Sharon. ATA has mixed reaction to Lougheed's policy on education. Edmonton Journal, January 11, 1977, p. 16.

Cohen, Bob. Ontario to ask more from students: The three R's will be in evidence. Edmonton Journal, October 20, 1976, p. 33.

Francis, Lesley. Trustee loaded for bear in Canadian history trek. Edmonton Journal, March 24, 1975, p. 14.

Hills, Nicholas. B.C. joins Ontario's back-to-basics school. Edmonton Journal, November 5, 1976, p. 35.

Hurtig, Mel. Scholarly betrayal: Ignorance of Canada is a classroom legacy. Edmonton Journal, March 22, 1975, p. 5.

Imlach, Andy. Parents plead for return to three R's. Edmonton Journal, March 28, 1977, p. 1.

Imlach, Andy. MLA's differ on basic goals of education. Edmonton Journal, May 17, 1977, p. 29.

Sinclair, Gordon. Education review planned. Edmonton Journal, December 29, 1976, p. 1.

Basic education concern of St. Edmund parents. Edmonton Journal, January 11, 1977, p. 18.

Basic skill tests set for students. Edmonton Journal, March 19, 1977, p. 15.

Classes go back to the basics. Edmonton Journal, June 22, 1977, p. 106.

Grade 3 students to tackle tests first given students in 1956. Edmonton Journal, April 9, 1977, p. 24.

More Canadian history in schools. Edmonton Journal, March 26, 1975, p. 45.

New school program praised. Edmonton Journal, October 19, 1978, p. B6.

Still essential. Edmonton Journal, August 23, 1976, p. 4.

Stress on three R's "bad for schools." Edmonton Journal, October 29, 1977, p. 26.

Teach Canada. Edmonton Journal, March 26, 1975, p. 4.

Trustees to submit plans for Heritage Fund projects. Edmonton Journal, December 16, 1976, p. 26.

St. John's Edmonton Report

Alberta's universities take aim at student illiteracy, after 55% of Calgary freshmen flunk a new writing test. St. John's Edmonton Report, October 18, 1976, pp. 22-25.

ASTA pushes province-wide testing, but there is no lack of resistance to the idea. St. John's Edmonton Report, March 21, 1977, pp. 34-36.

Educators disagree on ways to teach students basic values. St. John's Edmonton Report, June 21, 1976, p. 20.

Five public trustees moving in on education's power structure, teachers protest board's "drastic" crackdown on incompetence. St. John's Edmonton Report, March 29, 1976, pp. 22-24.

Former social studies supervisor incisively rips the course apart. St. John's Edmonton Report, February 9, 1976, pp. 16-17.

Free enterprise's reputation under attack. St. John's Edmonton Report, August 23, 1976, pp. 26-27.

Funny thing about progressive education: After all these years, the kids can't read. St. John's Edmonton Report, February 16, 1976, pp. 22-23.

Fury over the frills: Mr. Koziak faces the ire even of party loyals over education. St. John's Edmonton Report, April 4, 1977, pp. 28-29.

The issue: Required Canadian history. St. John's Edmonton Report, December 13, 1976, pp. 28-29.

Job seekers can't read or add, city business people complain. St. John's Edmonton Report, September 13, 1976, p. 16.

"Mr. Education" quits government post: Or did the Department help ease him out? St. John's Edmonton Report, May 3, 1976, p. 22.

A nudge to return 'old' history to high schools from one who has to deal with the graduates. St. John's Edmonton Report, April 11, 1977, p. 29.

Once again, the question arises: Will it be 'old' history or more 'values clarification.' St. John's Edmonton Report, January 31, 1977, p. 29.

Schools graduating illiterates, beefed-up courses recommended. St. John's Edmonton Report, October 11, 1976, pp. 24-25.

Social studies: Many unloving critics. St. John's Edmonton Report, March 1, 1976, p. 12.

Social studies flunk in Alberta schools: Downey Report blasts puzzled teachers. St. John's Edmonton Report, January 5, 1976, pp. 16-19.

A trustee and a supervisor clash over the social studies course. St. John's Edmonton Report, May 10, 1976, p. 24.

Wild ideas for new-type school: Be strict, and teach academics. St. John's Edmonton Report, February 16, 1976, p. 24.

Will the schools outlast progressivism? Hints from the premier; cries from the ATA. St. John's Edmonton Report, March 14, 1977, pp. 19-22.

Miscellaneous Material

Royal Canadian Legion. Submission to the Department of Education. 1976.

Summary of meetings held to garner reactions to Draft #7 of the revised social studies curriculum—1977. 1977.

Summary of meetings held to garner reactions to various drafts of the revised social studies curriculum. 1976, 1977, 1978.

Summary of reaction meetings—Calgary. October 21, 1976.

Women of Unifarm. Submission to the Provincial Cabinet. December 1, 1976.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

LIST OF PERSONS INTERVIEWED

This list provides the names of the persons interviewed, the date(s) of the interview(s), and the position held by the person during the course of the curriculum development process examined in this study.

Badger, W. October 21, 1981	Supervisor, Social Studies, Edmonton Public School Board
Booi, L. February 15, 1982	Teacher, Edmonton Public School Board; Assistant Coordinator, Kanata Kit Project
Burley, T. December 3, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Carter, R. February 18, 1982	Consultant, Lethbridge Regional Office of Education; Chairman, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, February, 1978.
Chamberlin, C. December 4, 1981	Professor, Department of Elementary Education, University of Alberta; Member, Ad Hoc Committees
Connors, B. October 9, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Crowther, F. April 23, 1981 October 6, 1981 July 14, 1982 August 16, 1982	Chairman, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee; Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies, February, 1978
Dever, W. January 28, 1982	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Horvath, F. November 24, 1981	Consultant, Calgary Public School Board
Johnson, R. December 16, 1981	Consultant, Calgary Regional Office of Education
Kamra, Ardis December 30, 1981	Learning Resources Officer, Department of Education

Langford, J. December 21, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Ledgerwood, C. D. November 4, 1981	Associate Director of Curriculum for Social Studies
Mueller, J. November 25, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Mullen, L. January 28, 1982	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Parsons, J. January 20, 1982	Professor, Department of Secondary Education, University of Alberta
Sabey, R. January 7, 1982	Consultant, Canadian Studies, Department of Education
Schreiber, F. December 14, 1981	Consultant, Edmonton Regional Office of Education
Shortt, M. December 10, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Stiles, S. November 25, 1981 December 2, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee, Fall, 1978
Torgunrud, E. February 2, 1982	Director of Curriculum, Department of Education
Van Manen, M. October 22, 1981	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee

PERSONAL CORRESPONDENCE

Morgan, D. February, 1982	Member, Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee
Smolak, W. January 27, 1982	Executive Member, Social Studies Council of the Alberta Teachers' Association

APPENDIX B

THE INTERVIEW FORMAT

THE INTERVIEW FORMAT

The object of my study is to conduct a historical survey and documentary analysis of those processes that resulted in the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum for use in Alberta schools as recommended to and approved by the Minister of Education of Alberta.

My research is directed at an examination of the following related problems:

1. What individuals, groups and factors can be identified as having an influence on the curriculum development process?
2. What decisions and factors were crucial and had an important bearing on the development of the 1978 Alberta social studies curriculum?
3. How did these decisions and factors affect the outcome of the process of curriculum development in Alberta social studies?

In order to investigate these problems, guide questions are provided as a framework for discussion.

1. What individuals and groups were instrumental in the initiation and development of the new social studies?
2. What philosophy or educational beliefs and ideas do you associate with these people?
3. What issues arose relative to curriculum that were discussed at great length?
4. What positions were taken by what persons relative to certain issues?
5. What currriculum development structures existed to facilitate the process of curriculum policy-making?

6. What role was played in curriculum development by the following bodies and individuals?

   a. Social Studies Curriculum Coordinating Committee (Ad Hoc Committees)
   b. Curriculum Policies Board
   c. Associate Director of Curriculum
   d. Director of Curriculum
   e. Deputy Minister of Education
   f. Minister of Education
   g. Social Planning Committee of Cabinet (Cabinet Caucus on Education)
   h. Others

7. What structural and functional changes at the Department of Education from 1975 (?) to the present do you perceive to have had an important bearing on curriculum development in general and on the development of social studies in particular? What formal and informal linkages are important?

8. What particular strengths and weaknesses did you perceive to exist in the structure and process of curriculum development in the Department of Education?

9. What were the antecedents to the new social studies curriculum development?

10. What were the main reasons for initiating action?

11. What factors led to this initiative?

12. What factors in the wider environment appeared to have had an influence on the decisions that were reached? What societal trends in Alberta, Canada, North America, or the rest of the world do you perceive to have had an impact on the social studies curriculum development?

13. Which forces and circumstances in the social and political environment have

    a. facilitated your work in curriculum development?
    b. hindered and frustrated your work at that time?

14. How did the Department of Education seek input? Who gave input?

15. How did the 1971 and 1978 social studies curricula differ? In what ways were they similar?

16. What were the contributing factors that led to changes in general curricular policy-making? What were the contributing factors that led to the changes in policy-making relative to social studies?

17. In what respects does curriculum development in the early 1970's differ from curriculum development in the late 1970's and early 1980's?

18. What trend, if any, is apparent in the development of curriculum in general and social studies in particular?

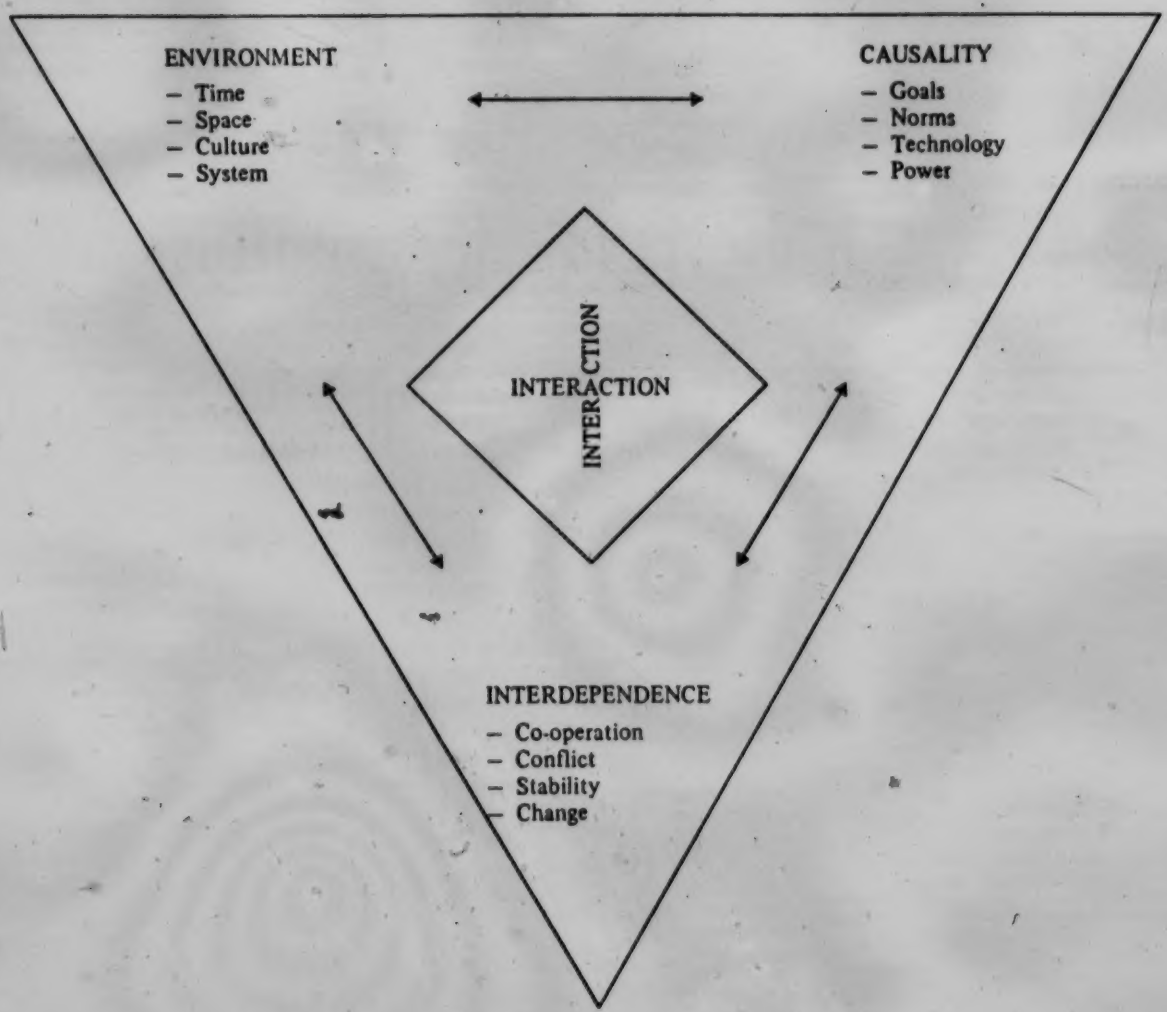
19. What are the implications for the future of curriculum development in the province of Alberta, in the light of the events of the recent past?

20. Which decision points, in retrospect, do you see as being major decisions that affected the type of curriculum that was developed?

APPENDIX C

THE INTERACTION PROCESS

THE INTERACTION PROCESS

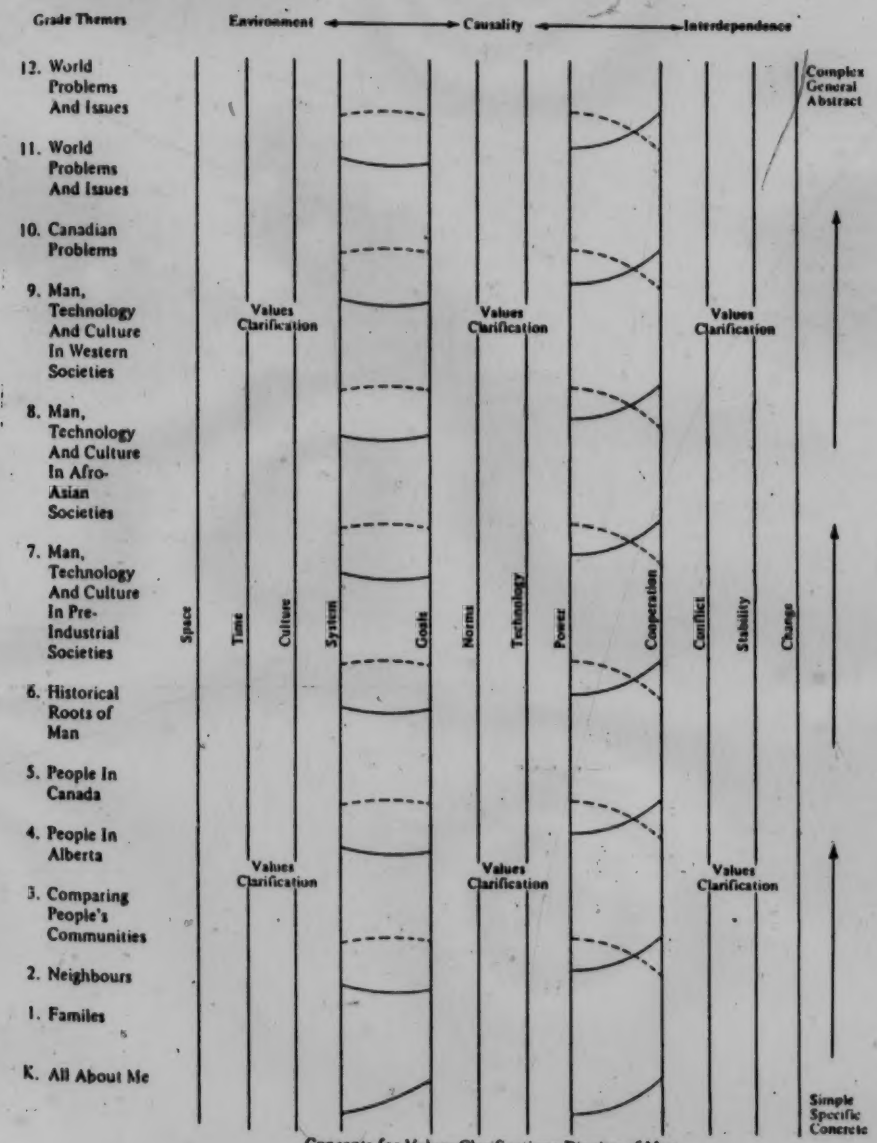


APPENDIX D

THE SPIRAL OF CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

THE SPIRAL OF CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT

THE INTERACTION PROCESS



Concepts for Values Clarification: Dignity of Man, Freedom, Equality, Loyalty, Justice, Empathy, etc.

APPENDIX E

ORGANIZING CONCEPTS OF THE 1978 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

FINE PRINT

ORGANIZING CONCEPTS OF THE 1978 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

THE HUMAN BEING AS INDIVIDUAL

HUMAN NEEDS

Human nature gives rise to certain needs — physical, social and psychological. The satisfaction of human needs is possible in a variety of ways with the result that cultures differ.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Survival
- Food
- Shelter
- Clothing
- Social Orderliness
- Communication
- Recreation
- Security
- Beliefs
- Affection
- Self-Esteem
- Self-Actualization

IDENTITY

Identity is the perception that human beings have of themselves. It reflects beliefs, attitudes and traditions, and influences the social and political behaviour of individuals, groups and nations.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Perception
- Socialization
- Individualism
- Culture
- Nationalism
- Internationalism
- Locality
- Self-Concept
- Pluralism
- Peer Group
- Sense of Community
- Regionalism
- Differences

VALUES

Values are basic ideas about what is important in life; they are standards of conduct which cause individuals, groups and nations to think and act in certain ways. Values held in and among societies vary. Value conflict results when individuals and groups make choices between actions representing different values. The processes for making value choices help individuals shape, reflect and elaborate their unique value systems.

HUMAN PROCESSES

INQUIRY

There exists an extensive variety of methods by which inquiry into human problems occurs. The method of established beliefs, the method of self-evidence, and the method of science have been the predominant approaches used throughout history to address problems. The inquiry methods that are most appropriate to the resolution of social concerns today are those of the human behavioural sciences. These involve skills of scientific inquiry, skills of value inquiry, skills of decision-making and the skills for implementing a plan of action.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Invention
- Faith
- Intuition
- Scientific Method
- Myth

INTERACTION

Human beings live collectively as well as individually. Individuals, groups and nations may co-operate to achieve goals and rewards or compete against one another. Rules are established in and between societies to lend meaning and predictability to the interaction between people and to the interaction between people and their social and physical environments.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Dependence
- Interdependence
- Co-operation
- Exploitation
- Conformity
- Co-ordination
- Independence
- Domination
- Conflict
- Competition
- Rights and Responsibilities

INFLUENCE

The ability to exert influence in public affairs is a basic civic competency. Influence can be achieved through the exercise of effective communication, knowledge of political legal decision-making processes, ability to work with others and the demonstration of consistency of proposed actions and accepted values.

HUMAN SYSTEMS

ENVIRONMENT

Environment consists of all the elements and conditions that act on a living thing or group of living things. Any human society, in order to survive, must form a workable relationship with the earth's resources. The sequence of human activities and cultural patterns is related to geographic location, accessibility, and to the particular time in which human beings live.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Space
- Region
- Resources
- Topography
- Geography
- Ecosystem
- Consumption
- Society
- Location
- Climate
- Demography
- Cartography
- Habitat
- Conservation
- Culture

INSTITUTION

An institution is an organized way of achieving human goals — a formal, recognized, established and stabilized way of pursuing some major social activity. Institutions within a social system are interrelated and changes in one create changes in the others.

Related and Sub-Concepts

- Education
- Government
- State
- Community
- Family
- Economy
- Religion

POWER

Power is a relationship by which people in a social system can control or in some way affect the behaviour of others in the social system. The origins of power are groups, beliefs, knowledge, wealth, and authority. How people use power determines the degree to which they can control the behaviour of others.

Related and Sub-Concepts

Standard of Behaviour (norms)	Attitudes
Hierarchy of Values	Beliefs
	Morality
	Choice
	Ethics

PERSPECTIVE

Perspective is the "frame of reference" from which an individual views what the world is like, what it should be like and how desired changes are to be achieved. Although each perspective is unique and has parts that are not always consistent with one another, "frames of reference" tend to determine how individuals, groups and nations think and act.

Related and Sub-Concepts

Perception	World View
Global View	Interpretation
Viewpoint	Stereotyping
Historical Bias	Ethno-centrism
Ego-centrism	Evidence
Subjectivity	Objectivity

Related and Sub-Concepts

Lobby	Interest Groups
Persuasion	Media
Status (position)	Freedom of Expression
Vote	

SOCIAL CHANGE

Societies do not remain static. The speed, the importance and the context of change (economic, political, social and technological) vary greatly within and between societies. No one factor operating by itself can be considered as the sole cause of any one single change. Combinations of factors, such as communication between people, mobility, and technological and scientific advances usually result in a social change. Depending on the perception of the observer, change may signify "progress" or "decline".

Related and Sub-Concepts

Tradition	Adaptation
Mobility	Stability
Progress	Revolution
Evolution	Transience

ADJUSTMENT

Human beings strive to reach the best possible equilibrium between themselves and the physical and social environment. Such a process necessitates compromise and adjustment to the forces influencing human life. Culture aids in the adjustment process by providing a social heritage and a process of social invention.

Related and Sub-Concepts

Assimilation	Discrimination
Ascribed Role	Achieved Role
Role Conflict	Rewards and Punishment
Socialization	Rules and Laws
Sanction	Conscience
Compromise	Frustration
Status	

Related and Sub-Concepts

Social Control	Authority
Wealth	Knowledge
Religion	Property
Legitimacy	Social Stratification
Egalitarianism	Multinationals

RESOURCES

The allocation and use of natural and human resources is a determining factor in the development of human culture and society. Human conflicts often result from an inequitable distribution of resources and from differences in technological capacities to utilize resources.

Related and Sub-Concepts

Economizing	Science
Industrialization	Productivity
Labour	Specialization
Urbanization	Technology
Goods and Services	Division of Labour
Command Economy	Market Economy
	Traditional Economy

APPENDIX F

INCORPORATION OF THE "ORGANIZING CONCEPTS" INTO A UNIT OUTLINE

GRADE SEVEN — PEOPLE AND THEIR CULTURE

Topic A — Defining Culture — An Introduction

In this topic students develop a framework with which to examine the relationships among various aspects of culture. Aspects of culture to which the framework can be applied in Topic A and subsequent topics include:

1. Techno-economic aspects (e.g., resources, tools)
2. Socio / political aspects (e.g., patterns of communication and social organization and control)
3. Ideological aspects (e.g., values, beliefs)
4. Affective aspects (e.g., attitudes, feelings, appreciations)

Students should develop the framework through an examination of experiences in their own cultural context, including the family, school and peer group, their roles as producers and consumers, in work and leisure situations, and so on.

Specific questions which will help in the development of the framework include: What does it meant to be "human"? What is culture? What are cultural universals? How is culture learned? What aspects of culture change most readily? Most slowly? How does culture influence one's behaviour?

GENERAL VALUE ISSUE: *HOW SHOULD "CULTURE" BE ASSESSED?*

RELATED SOCIAL ISSUES AND COMPETING VALUES:

Material Welfare / Self-Sufficiency — Should technological achievements be used to assess the advancement of cultures?
Personal Freedom / Social Control — Should institutions be used to enforce certain beliefs and behaviours in the members of a culture?
Universality of Human Beings / Freedom of the Individual — Should all cultures strive to teach certain universal values?
Uniqueness of Human Beings / Group Welfare — Should individual uniqueness be valued in a culture?

VALUE OBJECTIVES	KNOWLEDGE OBJECTIVES	SKILL OBJECTIVES
Students shall develop personal growth in the following value-related areas:	Students shall acquire information to develop interpretations of the following concepts and generalizations:	Students shall develop proficiency in all skill areas, including the following specific skills:
• An understanding of the universal values that underlie culture in all human societies. • A willingness to treat other people with respect, in spite of individual differences. • An ability to describe behaviours that reflect different value positions and to make a choice between conflicting values inherent in these alternative behaviours.	***Human Needs*** Cultures differ in the ways in which they satisfy human needs. The systems developed to satisfy these needs, in turn, result in diverse cultures. ***Interaction*** Culture is learned through group interaction. Culture provides social norms and means for dealing with conflict within and between social groups. Individuality may not be tolerated if it is perceived as threatening the survival of the group. ***Influence*** In a modern, technological society, individuals usually belong to many groups. This results in conflicting influences on people in their daily lives, thereby creating the need for decision-making about many aspects of lifestyle. ***Institutions*** As group members, humans develop accepted ways and means of meeting their needs. These ways and means are called "institutions." Institutions tend to support the broad roles, norms, values and sanctions of a culture.	***Inquiry Skills and Examples*** A. *Paraphrase a value issue* dealing with the dilemma of making judgments about the worth of culture. B. *Formulate research questions* to inquire into the concept of "culture" as students experience it. C. *Survey* the classroom and or school for information about the freedom and/or control that students experience in small social groups. D. *Categorize* values and beliefs inherent in customs, norms, roles, and rules that affect adolescents. E. *Develop the concept* of "cultural universals" in relation to Canadian culture. F. *Analyze values* which are inherent in individual behaviour, but contrary to specific societal norms. G. *Create a plan* for studying culture, and apply in a specific case study. H. *Assess the process* in terms of its apparent satisfactoriness in a new case study. ***Participation Skills and Examples*** A. *Support ideas logically* in proposing a framework for culture study. B. *Listen to the expression of ideas and feelings of others.* C. *Use consensus, majority rule, and authority procedures* to resolve an issue in the sub-culture of students. D. *Assist in group projects* that apply conclusions to classroom situations.

FINE PRINT

APPENDIX G

INCORPORATION OF INQUIRY SKILLS AND PARTICIPATION SKILLS INTO A UNIT OUTLINE

GRADE NINE — PEOPLE AND THEIR TECHNOLOGY
Topic C — Industrialization: Canada

In this topic, students inquire into issues related to the shifting locus of production as Canada moves from agrarian / industrial to industrial / post-industrial society. Possible themes for study include the history of industrial growth in Canada (an extension of Topic A), the effects of technological growth on the natural and social environments, and the ongoing effects of scientific and technological developments. Themes should be studied in the context of case studies selected from communications, agriculture, manufacturing, or transportation. At the conclusion of this unit, students should have a broad knowledge of some major features of Canadian geography.

GENERAL VALUE ISSUE: *SHOULD CONTINUED INDUSTRIAL GROWTH BE ENCOURAGED IN CANADA?*

RELATED SOCIAL ISSUES AND COMPETING VALUES:

Nationalism / Freedom from Interference — Should any industries (e.g., broadcasting) be nationalized in the interests of national welfare?

Conservation / Material Welfare — Should economic considerations outweigh environmental factors in the development of industry in Canada today?

Traditional Ideology / Efficiency — Should Canada use processes such as those employed by the Soviet Union to open up and develop the Canadian North?

VALUE OBJECTIVES	KNOWLEDGE OBJECTIVES	SKILL OBJECTIVES
Students shall develop personal growth in the following value-related areas:	Students shall acquire information to develop interpretations of the following concepts and generalizations:	Students shall develop proficiency in all skill areas, including the following specific skills:
• An understanding of the values reflected in different positions about how Canada's natural and human resources might best be used to meet human needs. • Positive feelings toward interdependence with the natural and social environments. • An ability to identify advantages and disadvantages of contrasting positions about industrialization in Canada, and to use this knowledge to judge the desirability of different uses of natural and human resources in Canada's present and future.	***Environment*** As countries industrialize, industries tend to evolve from simple "processing" to diverse manufacturing and highly complex "fabricating" (i.e., assembling parts produced by a number of other manufacturers). Canadians live in an urbanized society in which the majority of people, activities, and institutions are found in cities. Major metropolitan centres increasingly dominate the commercial, political, and cultural life of the nation. ***Values*** Traditional societies tend to view nature as holistic; i.e., all things, including humans, are totally interdependent. Modern societies tend to separate humans from the rest of nature in a ruling and exploiting capacity. Our values help determine which technologies should be developed as fully as possible. Choices must frequently be made between the competing values of conservation and industrialization. ***Influence*** Advances in technology (e.g., travel, communications) have increased the contact, and therefore the mutual influence, of views and policies between different regions in Canada.	***Inquiry Skills and Examples*** A. *Paraphrase an issue* to encompass themes dealing with industrial growth in Canada. B. *Formulate research questions* to assess the effects of industrial growth on the lifestyles of Canadians in case studies of industries. C. *Read and interpret* maps of Canada and Canada Yearbook for locations of various industries, resources, and transportation routes. D. *Evaluate bias and/or emotionalism* associated with problems of industrialization (such as pollution, rapid urbanization). E. *Formulate generalizations* about the relationship between extent of industrialization and regional resources. F. *Predict the consequences* of encouraging and/or discouraging industrial growth in Canada's future. G. *Create a plan* to resolve an issue related to post-industrialization, such as "Should only one member of a household be permitted to hold a job in times of unemployment?" H. *Judge the worth of consequences* in terms of a value like "equal opportunity". ***Participation Skills and Examples*** A. *Adapt a communication* to interview selected representatives of business and labour. B. *Demonstrate understanding for the decisions made by group members* on the relative importance of environment and industry. C. *Prepare a position* on conservation vs. industrialization. D. *Demonstrate a sense of sharing* in creating a plan for Canada's future in an industry.

FINE PRINT

APPENDIX H

SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS—1971 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

SOCIAL STUDIES SKILLS: A Guide To Analysis And Grade Placement – *Continued*

(Code: EP, early primary; LP, late primary; EI, early intermediate; LI, late intermediate; J, junior high school; S, senior high school)

PART ONE: Skills which are a definite but shared responsibility of the social studies – *Continued*

Skill	Introduce, through planned readiness experiences	Develop systematically	Reteach, maintain, and extend
I. Locating information – *Continued*			
F. Know how to find material in a library, both school and public – *Continued*			
a. A book is listed in three ways – by subject, by author, and by title	EI	LI-J	S
b. All cards are arranged alphabetically	EI	LI-J	S
c. Cards have call numbers in upper left-hand corner which indicate the location on the shelf	EI	LI-J	S
d. Some author cards give more information than the title or subject card	EI	LI-J	S
e. Information such as publisher, date of publication, number of pages and of illustrations, and usually some annotation are provided	EI	LI-J	S
f. The Dewey Decimal System is a key to finding books	J	S	S
4. Use the Canadian Periodical Index, and other indexes	J	S	S
F. Gather facts from field trips and interviews			
1. Identify the purpose of the field trip or interview	EP	LP-J	S
2. Plan procedures, rules of behavior, questions to be asked, things to look for	EP	LP-J	S
3. Take increasingly greater initiative in the actual conduct of the field trip or interview	EP	LP-J	S
4. Evaluate the planning and execution of the field trip or interview	EP	LP-J	S
5. Find acceptable ways to open and close an interview	LP	EI-J	S
6. Express appreciation for courtesies extended during the field trip or interview	EP	LP-J	S
7. Record, summarize, and evaluate information gained	EP	LP-S	S
G. Be selective in using audiovisual materials	EP-LL	J	S
(See Acquiring information through listening and observing; and Interpreting pictures, charts, graphs, tables; Part One, Sections V, VII.)			
H. Use maps and globes in developing geographic skills	LP	EI-J	S
(See Interpreting maps and globes, Part Two, Section III.)			
II. Organizing information			
A. Make an outline of topics to be investigated and seek material about each major point, using more than one source	EI	LI-S	S
B. Select the main idea and supporting facts	LI	LI-S	S
C. Compose a title for a story, picture, graph, map or chart	EP	LP-LI	J-S

APPENDIX I

ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT

ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT IN THE

1964/65, 1971 and 1978

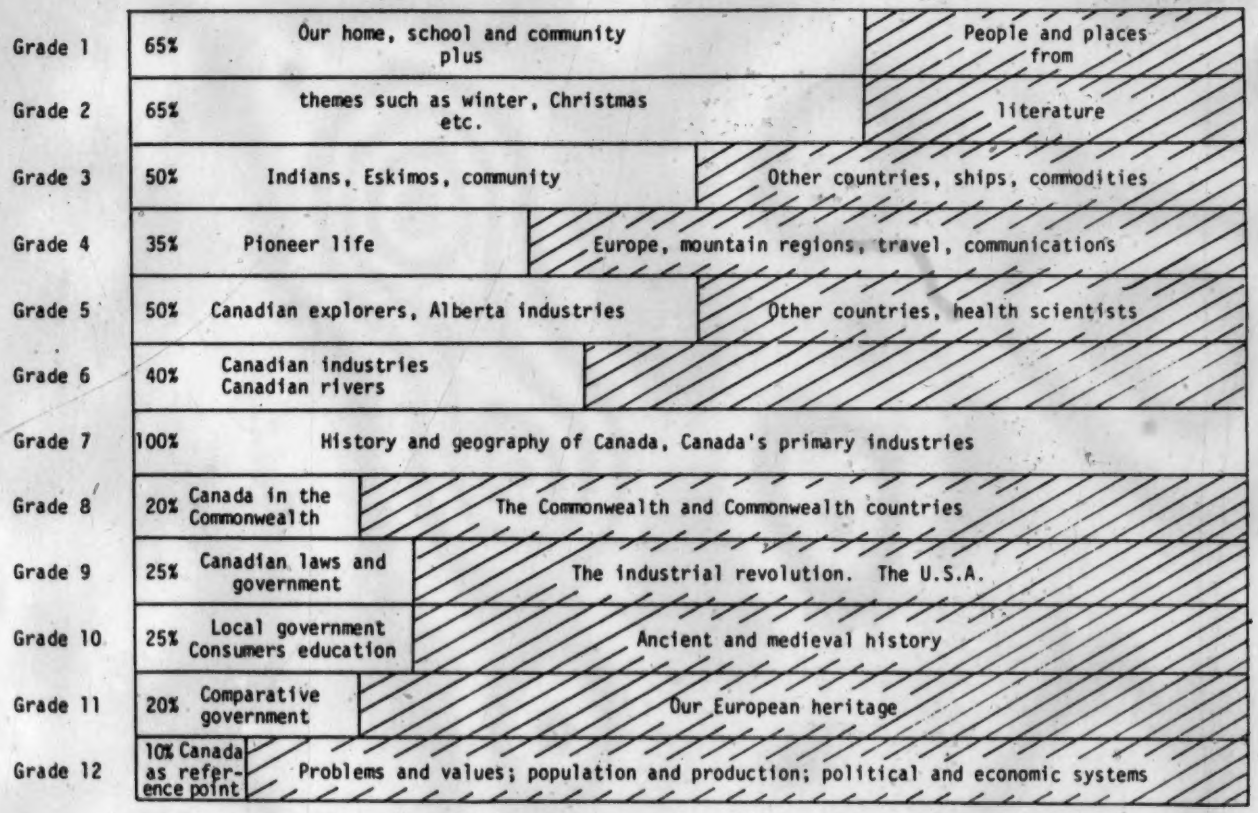
ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA

	1964/65	1971	1978
Division I (gr. 1-3)	60%	65%	83%
Division II (gr. 4-6)	42%	63%	62%
Division III (gr. 7-9)	48%	17%	45%
Division IV (gr. 10-12)	18%	37%	47%
TWELVE GRADE TOTAL	43%	47%	60%

ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT IN THE 1964/65 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Key ☐ = % of prescribed time devoted to Canadian studies
▨ = % of prescribed time devoted to international studies

Note: Teachers were encouraged to devote "a few minutes per day" to current events.



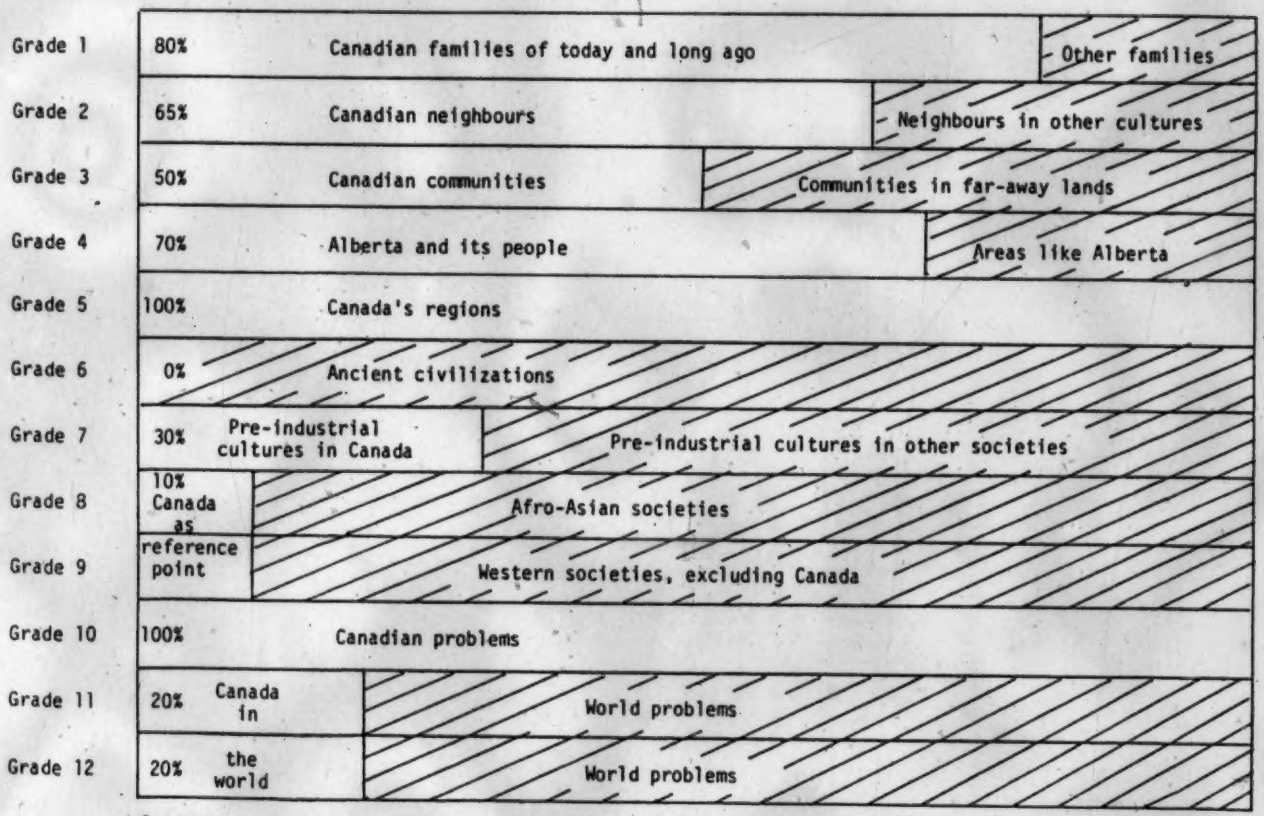
Proportion of total twelve-year program devoted to Canadian studies = 43%
Proportion of Division I program devoted to Canadian studies = 60%
Proportion of Division II program devoted to Canadian studies = 42%
Proportion of Division III program devoted to Canadian studies = 48%
Proportion of Division IV program devoted to Canadian studies = 18%

FINE PRINT

ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT IN THE 1971 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Key ☐ = % of prescribed time devoted to Canadian studies
▨ = % of prescribed time devoted to international studies

Note: One third time was unstructured. Topics of study were chosen by teachers and students.



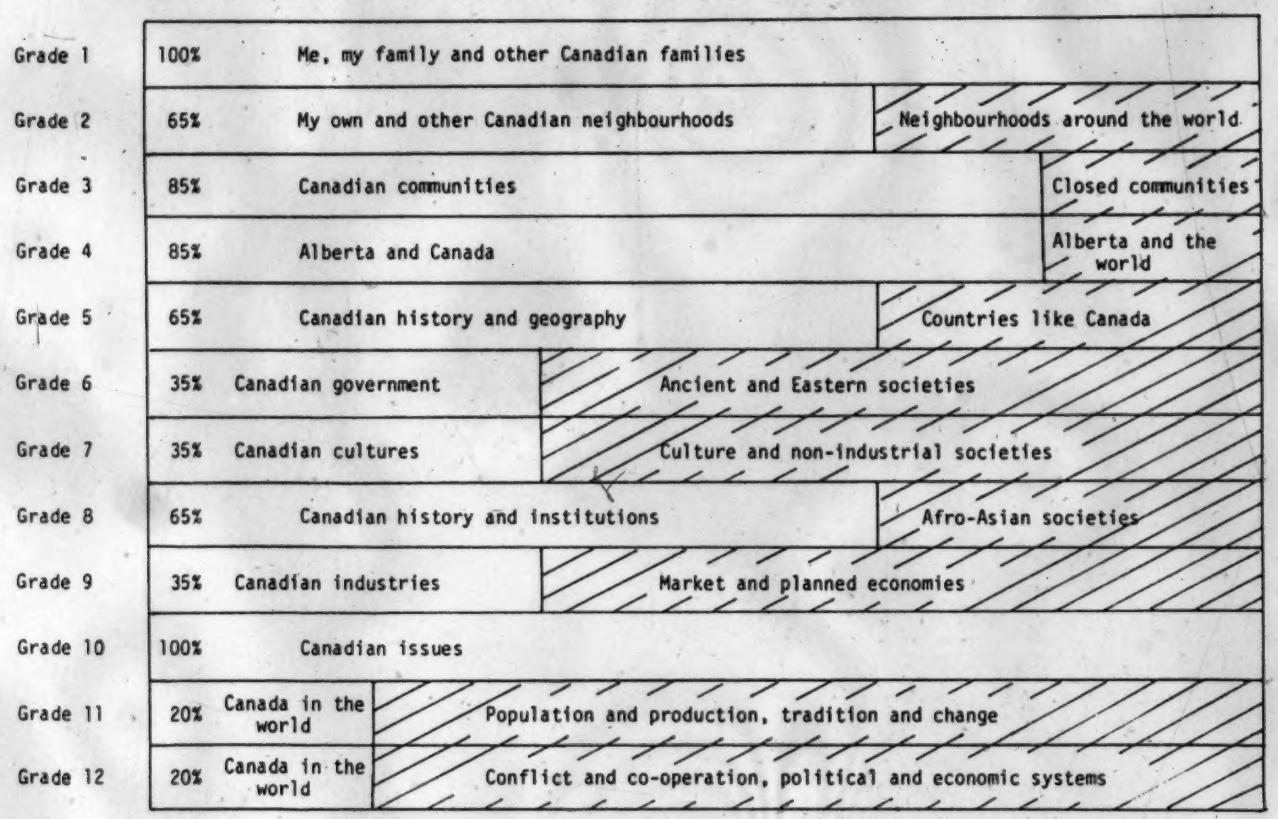
Proportion of total twelve-year program devoted to Canadian studies = 47%
Proportion of Division I program devoted to Canadian studies = 65%
Proportion of Division II program devoted to Canadian studies = 63%
Proportion of Division III program devoted to Canadian studies = 17%
Proportion of Division IV program devoted to Canadian studies = 37%

FINE PRINT

ANALYSIS OF CANADIAN CONTENT IN THE 1978 ALBERTA SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Key ☐ = % of prescribed time devoted to Canadian studies
▨ = % of prescribed time devoted to international studies

Note: One quarter is unstructured. Topics of study are chosen by teachers and students.



Proportion of total twelve-year program devoted to Canadian studies = 60%
Proportion of Division I program devoted to Canadian studies = 83%
Proportion of Division II program devoted to Canadian studies = 62%
Proportion of Division III program devoted to Canadian studies = 45%
Proportion of Division IV program devoted to Canadian studies = 47%

FINE PRINT

FINE PRINT

APPENDIX J

CANADIAN HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—1978 SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Canadian Studies are sequentially structured through the curriculum as follows:

Grades 1-3: Students are introduced to the broad features of Canadian culture, to urban and rural lifestyles, and to the concepts of "passage of time" and "change" in their own local communities.

Grades 4-6: Students develop a broad awareness of the following content areas:

- Lifestyles in major eras in Alberta's history;
- Alberta's physical features and natural resources;
- Events surrounding the creation of Alberta as a province;
- Alberta's place in Canada;
- Canadian history to the settlement of Western Canada;
- Canada's demographic and economic regions;
- Political processes and institutions at the local, provincial and national levels.

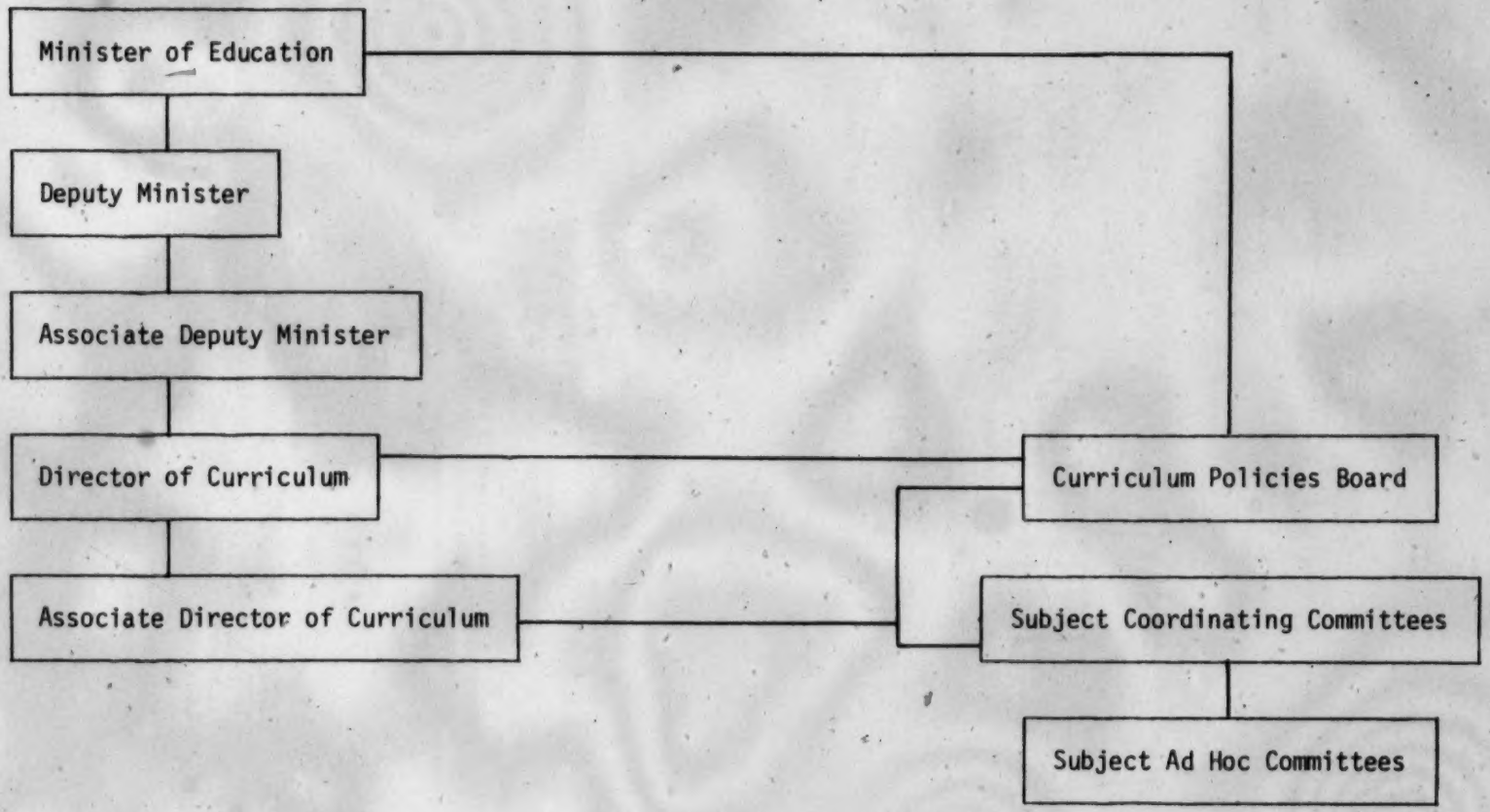
Grades 7-9: Students develop an in-depth understanding of the following content areas:

- Canada as a multicultural society;
- The development of Canadian political institutions in the pre- and post-Confederation eras;
- Basic Canadian institutions and the ways in which they have evolved to reflect the needs and identity of Canadians;
- The influence of geography on Canadian culture and on major industries such as agriculture, manufacturing, transportation and communications.

Grades 10-12: Students develop an in-depth understanding of the following content areas:

- The economic, geographic, historical, cultural and political factors influencing national unity;
- The political and civil aspects of human rights today and in Canada's past;
- Canada's political and economic systems;
- Canada's economic, political and cultural relations with other nations.

APPENDIX K

THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT STRUCTURE—ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT STRUCTURE—ALBERTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION